The Nation.

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The Week.

Rear-Admiral Schley's objections to the verdict of the Court of Inquiry are disingenuous in many respects. He refers throughout to the report of the "majority of the Court," even when touching on those points upon which Admiral Dewey was in full accord with Rear-Admirals Benham and Ramsay. In remarking upon the Hodgson matter, he calls attention merely to the question of the colloquy, when it was his treatment of the subsequent correspondence with Hodgson for which the Court censured him. As a whole, Rear-Admiral Schley's exceptions are simply those which any man might make in any court where a case had gone against him. To his question why the Court did not take his word on certain points, there is but one answer which the Court can give—it found the evidence to the contrary from many credible witnesses entirely too strong to be overlooked. It would hardly be advisable, if it were possible, for the Rear-Admiral to force the Court to still greater frankness. However he may succeed in puzzling the public by his protests, 95 per cent. of the officers of the navy have but one view, that he has got off remarkably well, and far better than he deserved. If this is a "conspiracy" on the part of his fellow-officers, it is the most complete, wholehearted, and generally remarkable conspiracy this country has ever seen.

Secretary Long's action in approving the finding of the Schley Court of Inquiry and mildly disapproving the dissenting opinion of Admiral Dewey can, of course, be attributed by the Schley press solely to the same conspiracy, which they know has so long "hounded" the hero. Even the evident fact that this was done with the consent of President Roosevelt will not, we are sure, save Secretary Long from more abuse at the hands of those who were quite ready to acknowledge and praise his able administration of the navy during the war with Spain, until they conceived the idea that he was wantonly planning to rob a gallant officer of his reputation and good name. As it is, we can only hope again that the incident is now closed for all time. The review of the case by the civilian tribunal composed of three lawyers proposed by Schley's adherents is not one to be entertained for an instant. So far as history is concerned, the facts are on record, and the nation and navy have been saved from having the Schley standard of efficiency and honor made that of the service, which, fortunately for its good name, has had but one such unhappy incident in its history.

The severity of the censure of Gen. Miles for his indiscreet interview upon the Schley case is probably without parallel in the history of the army, in view of his rank and prominence, yet it would be hard to say that it is undeserved. The habit of talking too much seems to have fastened itself upon high officers in this country, as it has upon the Bullers and Whites and Colvilles in England and the Von Waldersees in Germany. Wherever it establishes itself, it makes against discipline and subordination, and it must be checked if a military service is to be kept efficient. If it seems to the civilian a hardship, the reply is that it is one of the conditions of the service which every officer accepts voluntarily—however irksome it may be to omit opportunities for rushing into print. In Gen. Miles's case the length of his service and his knowledge of the regulations make his misdeed a far graver one than a similar indiscretion in the case of a younger officer. The frequency of the fault in others, and the fact that this is not Gen. Miles's first offence, undoubtedly gave edge to Secretary Root's rebuke. The truth is, that Gen. Miles has lost touch with the present administration of the War Department, as he did with previous ones. In any other service an officer of his rank so reprimanded would resign or retire, and give the Administration an opportunity to select a commanding General in active sympathy with its endeavors to take the army out of politics, and to reform it from the bottom up. Another slip on the part of Gen. Miles might easily result in his forcible retirement by direction of the President. As it is, the feeling in favor of the abolition of his position and the substitution of a chief of staff, to be appointed for four years by each President, is steadily growing.

It has unexpectedly transpired that Secretary Gage will shortly resign the portfolio of the Treasury and take up again the rôle of banker, which he abandoned five years ago at the instance of President McKinley. This change will be due wholly to his own volition, and not to any disagreement or friction with President Roosevelt. We have reason to believe that the latter would greatly prefer to retain the services of a financier so skilled, and an adviser so capable and many-sided, as Mr. Gage has shown himself to be. But Mr. Gage is not a rich man, and he probably considers that he has given as much of his time to the public service as he can afford to do. Mr. Gage was among the bankers of this city on Thursday evening, and made a speech to them which may, perhaps, be considered the last advice he can give them from the exalted position he has filled at Washington. He took this opportunity to repeat a suggestion which he made in his last report to Congress, in favor of a great financial institution to be formed by the voluntary action of the banks for mutual support and strength in times of trouble. He did not, however, indicate any means of bringing about such a union. He referred his hearers to his annual report, leaving the impression on their minds, perhaps, that they would there find a more definite exposition of his views. But the report itself does not supply the missing link. Mr. Gage there pronounces branch banking so opposed to the ideas and institutions of our people that it is not to be thought of. He does not now tell us whether the idea which he entertains depends for its realization upon the lawmaking power, but we infer from his general drift that it does not. The difference between his views and those of Mr. Stickney, on which we commented last week, is in reference to branch banks. Mr. Stickney favors them, Mr. Gage does not.

If we correctly apprehend Mr. Gage's thought, there is no obstacle to the carrying out of his suggestion now. The means for doing so already exist. It is only for the bankers to put their heads together and establish the great central institution. Some people may indeed ask whether this movement has not already begun. There has been an observed tendency toward bank consolidation in this great banking centre for some time. There has been a nucleus growing in the nebula for several years, and more latterly a second one has appeared. The first one in the field was the City National Bank and its consolidations and outside belongings. The second and later one is the First National Bank and its affiliations. Now the idea of a great central institution is not consistent with the idea of two great central institutions, and if there are to be two, why not three or more? The two already in progress, we may be sure, are not forming with any thought of public benefit. That is not a banking conception. It has no proper place in the categories of finance. The two nuclei are forming to make money for their shareholders and managers. They want to bring large sums of money together in one place and under one control, in order to take advantage of circumstances that may arise which promise gain. They may prove to be of advantage to the public in times of panic, or they may be promoters and

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producers of panics, as the old Bank of the United States was, under its Pennsylvania charter.

The bright hopes founded upon Gov. Taft's report on the progress of civil government in the Philippines are dashed by a cablegram to the Associated Press, which says that Gen. George W. Davis recommends that the province of Misamis, Mindanao, be again placed under military control. He says that he has proof that the recently elected civil officers have been furnishing ammunition to the insurgents. Gen. Wade, who is in command on Cebu Island, concurs with Gen. Davis. Gen. Chaffee takes a more hopeful view, but thinks that military rule will be required in Samar for some months longer. "There," says the dispatch, "the situation demands a policy of rigid starvation, and the giving of food only to those who surrender or who stay in the towns." Reconcentration is the watchword in Samar and South Africa, and to this complexion have we, in common with our English cousins, come at last. Or, rather, we came to it long ago, and we are keeping it up because it is so beautifully adapted to the purpose of crushing out the "rebellion." We have to admit now that Weyler understood his business, and that when he introduced the "policy of rigid starvation," of which Senator Proctor drew such a moving picture, he was our master, our past-master, in the art of putting down rebellions.

One of the most striking and significant facts in connection with the relations of the United States to the Philippines is the prompt return to this country of all soldiers who can get away from the islands. Recruits are being sent thither at the rate of nearly 1,000 a month, yet Gen. Chaffee has had to cable for a thousand more cavalry recruits. This is by no means due to the losses from disease, or sickness, or disability, but to the circumstance that men cannot be got to reënlist when their terms have expired. Each returning transport brings several hundred discharged men to San Francisco, and a number of regiments in or near Manila which were reorganized and filled up with fresh recruits early in 1899, just after the war with Spain, have been almost paralyzed by the refusal of these men to reënlist. Thus, of the 1,200 men in the Twentieth Infantry, 600 have taken their discharges, including the majority of the non-commissioned officers, so that, as Col. McCaskey puts it, "the regiment will be practically disorganized." The First, Fifth, and Sixth Cavalry, and Third, Fourth, Eighth, Twelfth, Twenty-first, Twenty-second, and Twenty-ninth Infantry are similarly affected. The men have but one idea, namely, to get "home" as soon as possible. Not one per cent. wish to stay in the archipelago, and it is well that not many are so inclined. When the volunteer army was mustered out last spring, there was an immediate glut in the white labor market, and, to prevent disorder and destitution, some ex-soldiers who had elected to stay were sent home. Nothing could show more plainly how little the Philippines have to offer to Americans without considerable means, and how utterly unattractive the insular conditions are to men brought up in the United States. How different the history of the Louisiana Purchase, of Texas, of California!

Secretary Root's refusal to postpone the Cuban election set for December 31 is extremely creditable both to himself and to the Administration. It will be unsatisfactory only to the Maso party, which had hoped to bring about a delay, and it will not confirm the General's followers in their belief that there is to be governmental interference in the election. That there has been some partisanship displayed by Cuban office-holders is altogether probable. Secretary Root, however, takes this opportunity to reaffirm the intentions of our Government to get out of Cuba at the earliest possible moment, and to permit no delay in the programme except for the "most weighty and substantial reasons." As to the specific charge brought by Mr. Fidel G. Pierra, the representative of the Maso interests, Mr. Root points out that the political bias of the Central Board of Scrutiny in favor of one candidate furnishes no ground for overturning the complicated election machinery erected by the Constitutional Convention. He believes that to be a false theory of official responsibility which assumes that men in places of public trust will be guilty of malfeasance because they prefer one candidate to another. Most effective of all is Secretary Root's demonstration that a compliance with Mr. Pierra's request would be the very interference in the Cuban election against which the Maso party has all along protested. The Secretary's admirable letter should go far towards reassuring the Cuban public and all others interested that the United States will withdraw from Cuba in the first half of 1902, if the Cubans themselves will permit such a withdrawal by the prompt establishment of their republic.

The ship-subsidy people will take small comfort from the recent visit of the great English shipmaster, Sir Christopher Furness. He came to this country in order to see how we do things in the construction of seagoing vessels and in means of transportation generally. If he had had the interests of the subsidy people at heart, he would have pointed out the great disadvantage under which our infant shipping industry lies, and would have urged Congress to consider so pitiful a case. But, most inconsiderately, he had his own interests in mind, and left in American shipyards orders aggregating four million dollars for twelve steamers of an average carrying capacity of eight thousand tons. The insidiousness of such an act would in the good old times have aroused the suspicion that the treasury of the Cobden Club was somehow involved in the purchase. To-day "British gold" has not the hateful look it had a score of years ago, and probably even the ship-subsidy people will soon admit that we build ships cheaper than any other nation. Help is needed, not for the struggling ship-builder, but for the oppressed ship-owner. Sir Christopher Furness's untimely confirmation of the well-known fact that this is the best place in the world to buy ships, recalls vividly the aphorism that one should fear the Britishers even when they bring gifts.

One of the main difficulties to be encountered by the arbitration committee of the National Civic Federation was well illustrated on Sunday. While clergymen were terming the arbitration plan a great victory for humanity, the less gentle-mannered spokesmen of Cigarmakers' Union No. 144 pointedly suggested that the arbitrators could have no control over any labor bodies, and that therefore no attention should be paid the proposal by asking for a report concerning it. Aspersions were even cast upon the conduct of labor delegates to the Civic Federation conference. It is just this divergence in point of view between the clergymen and the cigarmakers that has always impeded the progress of arbitration. As soon as a plan which contains elements of fairness to both sides is prepared, and which consequently appeals to the outsider's sense of justice, it is likely to be viewed with suspicion by one party or the other. When confidence in labor leaders is lost by the men they represent, efforts at pacific settlement of a controversy are always regarded as showing readiness to play into the hands of the enemy. Labor organizations have not the close military discipline that enables bodies of men to accept defeat or its prospect without demoralization, and victory without arrogance.

Justice Jerome's proposal that the Legislature pass an act opening all the saloons in New York city Sunday afternoon and evening without consulting the voters of the city, has met the reception which was anticipated by those who know the strength of the home-rule sentiment in this State. Not a single newspaper, either in this city or in any other part of the commonwealth, endorses the idea that so radical a step should be

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taken by the lawmakers at Albany without a reference to the people; and in this attitude the press undoubtedly reflects public opinion. It is obvious that the only policy which can possibly secure favorable consideration by the Legislature is that of local option, in the shape of a bill giving the voters of New York city a chance to show at the polls whether they want open saloons on Sunday or not. The movement for this referendum secures considerable support from people who oppose such opening, because it is now the general belief—shared by the shrewdest politicians in both parties—that the vote would show a large majority against Sunday saloons. For this very reason, however, those who favor Sunday opening are against applying the local-option idea—especially the liquor-dealers, who fear that, if the people should once vote against opening saloons on Sunday, there might be a movement for a similar vote by wards or election districts upon the question of having saloons open on week-days, which would result in making some sections of the city "dry" all the time.

If Senator Platt is really going to sue Mr. William Allen White and make it a test of personal and political friendship to read and denounce that writer's article on the boss, it can only be taken among the "boys" as a sign that the "old man" has lost his grip. Mr. White gives, to be sure, no flattering portrait of the boss, but it is difficult to find anything in his criticism which a jury would consider libellous. If Mr. White recalls a forgotten incident in Mr. Platt's career at Albany, and says that he recently dozed through an important Republican banquet, these are presumably matters of fact, not of opinion. It cannot be pleasant for Senator Platt to read that "he has no sort of conception of that part of a man which is called the moral nature"; but it would certainly be difficult for a more strenuous idealist than Senator Platt to prove to the satisfaction of a court of law that he had a conception of what is called the moral nature. These, in short, are matters of opinion, not of fact. Mr. William Allen White has been generally recognized as the eulogist, quite as much as the analyst, of those in high place, so that the very contemptuous tone of his article on Senator Platt constitutes a double grievance. But we believe that Senator Platt has no remedy except to appear so great and magnanimous to his fellow-citizens that the contemptible figure which Mr. White makes him out to be, will be generally execrated as a grotesquely false caricature. With this sword envy may be always slain.

Reciprocity has long been a favorite theme for meaningless verbal gymnastics, but the report of the Pan-American Committee conceals thought on that subject more successfully than even a political platform. It comes out strong for reciprocity treaties between the several American republics, based on "mutual concessions" and involving "reciprocal advantages." What these may be, the report, with more than Roman firmness, refuses to tell. It defies the world, however, to deny that reciprocity is "a fundamental principle of Pan-Americanism," and angrily resents the charge that it favors any kind of reciprocity treaties which would not be both "mutual" and "stable." We congratulate our delegate, Mr. Buchanan, former Minister to Argentina, for having put his name to a report containing such irreproachable sentiments. We congratulate him even more upon the skill with which he refrained from so much as mentioning the Argentine treaty of reciprocity with the United States, so contemptuously done to death in the Senate. This helps to make our national position clear. We are, to the last man, enthusiastically in favor of reciprocity in general; we are, to the last Senator, unalterably opposed to any given treaty of reciprocity.

The speech of Señor Casasus at Mexico (on December 17), on the proposal to establish a Pan-American bank, expressed the undoubted policy of the Mexican Government in declaring that such an institution is only a mirage. Governments, he said, cannot subsidize particular banks, since such a course would be unconstitutional, as well as unfair to other banks. It is good to find delegates at the Pan-American Congress perceiving the logic of the situation so clearly. In the first flush of enthusiasm at the Congress, a plan for a Pan-American railroad was proposed, and a committee was appointed to secure subsidies and land grants in support of the road from "those Governments that were economically able" to assist. The bank plan is another scheme of the same sort, and it is evident that Mexico is not to be one of the states that are "economically able" to support institutions without any clientèle. Probably every one of the South American countries would say the same thing. The suggestions of the Congress will, therefore, amount to no more than mild hints that the United States supply banking and trade instrumentalities to her neighbors on the south. The fact is that there is no use in establishing banks and railways until there is business for them.

Another occasion for Continental dread of American enterprise is afforded by the reported operations of the American Tobacco Trust in Germany. The ascendancy in the English market already acquired by the Trust makes this latest extension of its sphere all the more remarkable. President Duke of the American Tobacco Company is now said to have purchased four large German concerns. His plan is to unite two of these establishments and, with the three factories then remaining, to begin a contest for the control of the German market. It is too early as yet to express any opinion upon the possibility of the Trust's succeeding in its present effort to enter Russia as well as Germany. Both in France and in Russia the production of tobacco is a most profitable Government monopoly, and, unless the Trust could introduce very marked economies in production, it could scarcely afford to pay the heavy royalty that would be exacted. That this, however, is a possibility, the success of the Trust in acquiring the tobacco monopoly of Japan clearly proves. The significance of these foreign operations in tobacco lies in the fact that the Trust seems to be proceeding upon strictly commercial lines. In England, where it now has a firm foothold, it went only so far in its purchases of domestic firms as to gain a point of departure. It depends for the future upon its superior methods of production rather than upon artificial attempts at monopoly. How severely it is pushing the independent English concerns may be seen from their frantic appeals to patriotic smokers to use only home products.

An old sore was touched on Friday in the Italian Senate, when the question of the responsibility of the United States for the security of Italian citizens in America was raised. The Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs reasserted the eminently just position of his Government, that the payment of an indemnity as an act of grace is not adequate satisfaction for the failure to protect Italians in this country. That the families of lynched Italians should individually receive such indemnity he could not prevent, but he protested against a condition of things by which the United States refuses to foreigners the ordinary guarantees of a civilized nation. Invariably the President has had to make the humiliating confession that he had no jurisdiction in the matter, and as often Congress has taken the shabby course of offering blood-money, without apologies or guarantees for the future, or, indeed, any of the formal reparations which civilized nations offer in such a case. A simple act of Congress would remedy this discreditable state of affairs. Twice, in his annual messages of 1899 and 1900, President McKinley urged that Congress, by law, assign to the Federal courts jurisdiction in all cases in which the responsibility of the Government is involved. Twice the matter was ignored by Congress. President Roosevelt certainly does not yield to his predecessor in the sentiment of national honor, and we hope to see him take up vigorously a matter in which national honor is deeply concerned.

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THE PANAMA SURRENDER.

Our Canal Commissioners at Washington must have read with peculiar and perhaps slightly malicious pleasure the dispatches from Paris telling of the complete surrender of the Panama Canal Company. By the action of its stockholders it has repudiated its former President, M. Hutin, whose discomfiture in the negotiation which he carried on, too cleverly by half, with Admiral Walker is now acknowledged. No one can read the correspondence which passed between them without smiling at the steady persistence with which the American met all the shifts and windings of the elusive Frenchman with the one question, "Tell us your price." At last M. Hutin named some figures—$109,000,000—which he said the Company would regard as "just," though from them it would doubtless make "reasonable concessions" if it should appear that they were justifiable. But implacable Admiral Walker took the Frenchman at his word, reported that the Panama Company had demanded an "unreasonable price," and, in view of that fact, he and his fellow-Commissioners favored the Nicaragua route.

"Too late," it is said, comes the consternation of the Panama stockholders at the blundering of their President; and too late their repentance and renewed offers to sell their property at a fair price. But why should it be too late for us to accept and profit by a situation which our Canal Commissioners labored long and earnestly to bring about? It is impossible to read their able report without seeing how strong is their inclination to the Panama route. In their final summary they say in so many words:

> "There are certain physical advantages, such as a shorter canal line, a more complete knowledge of the country through which it passes, and the lower cost of maintenance and operation, in favor of the Panama route; *but the price fixed* by the Panama Canal Company for a sale of its property is *so unreasonable* that its acceptance cannot be recommended by this Commission."

The "unreasonable" price was, as has been said, $109,000,000. What is the canal really worth to the United States? Not 109,000,000 cents, say the Nicaraguan enthusiasts. But softly, kind friends, we must not ignore our own Commissioners. They, as skilled engineers, made a careful estimate of the value of the Panama Canal, which may be found on p. 103 of their report. Leaving the plant entirely out of the account—since all the buildings, machinery, dredges, locomotives, etc., might be of no use to an American contractor—they reckon the whole to be worth in round numbers $40,000,000. This sum decomposes into $27,474,033 for the "excavation already done," $6,850,000 for the "Panama Railroad stock at par," and $2,000,000 for "maps, drawings, and records"—total $36,324,033, "to which add 10 per cent. to cover omissions, making the total value of the Panama Canal $40,000,000."

It is this valuation by the American Commissioners which the Panama stockholders have determined to accept. This shows how sweeping is Admiral Walker's triumph. He has succeeded in getting $69,000,000 knocked off the price named by M. Hutin. How will this leave the account between the two routes, purely on the money side? The Commissioners estimate the cost of constructing a Nicaragua canal at $189,864,620; to complete the Panama Canal will require, they say, $144,233,358. Add in the $40,000,000 for the estimated value of the work already done at Panama, and we have the latter route the cheaper by $5,600,000. But this is by no means the whole story. On p. 256 of the Commissioner's report is printed the estimated cost of maintaining and operating the two canals. The figures for Nicaragua are $3,300,000 a year; for Panama $2,000,000. This advantage of Panama represents a capitalized value of $40,000,000. Therefore, taking the estimate of our own engineers, we stand to save $45,000,000 by electing the Panama route. Is Uncle Sam so lavish and reckless that he will disdain to pick up a tidy sum like that?

This is saying nothing of the technical, engineering arguments. That these strongly favor the Panama route is now beyond dispute. There is practically a consensus, on this point, of the ablest engineers of all nations who have looked into the two projects. The engineering preferences of our own Commissioners are unmistakable in their report. They incline markedly to Panama, and bring out the difficulties and drawbacks of the Nicaragua route more conspicuously than has been done in any previous report. As they say, the "complete problem" involves a plan for a sea-level canal. This is wholly impossible through Nicaragua, and "the Panama route alone," say our Commissioners, "is feasible for a sea-level canal." To such a canal it is altogether likely that we shall want to come in the end; and this is but one of the engineering considerations which make powerfully for the choice of the Panama route. If the Frenchmen have perceived their great mistake and hastened to correct it, Americans should surely not seize the occasion to fall into a greater mistake of their own.

Happily, it is not too late for sober reconsideration. The President is not committed to the Nicaraguan route; his message spoke only of an Isthmian canal. The canal treaty leaves the door wide open for "whatever route may be expedient." With the Panama Company at last brought to their senses, and with their canal, which is demonstrably the cheaper and better, offered to the United States at a reasonable price, the opportunity for our Government is certainly fine both to save money and to build more wisely for the benefit of the generations and the commerce yet to be.

THE PHILIPPINE BURDEN.

President Roosevelt was never franker or terser than when, in his message to Congress, he called the Philippines "a great burden" to the United States. In that phrase he may have builded better than he knew. Boldly to throw down by one honest word the gorgeous fabric of empire and of glory built up in the Philippine oratory of a Beveridge, was to invite, whether consciously or not, a calm and sane review of our attitude and our policy. If a great burden, why bind it upon our backs one hour longer than absolutely necessary? This is the question which the march of events is more and more insistently pressing upon the Administration, upon Congress, and upon the people. There are many ways in which the Philippine burden is showing itself too grievous to be borne.

It is driving the Administration and the Republican party into self-stultification. On December 18 the House passed the bill reënacting the Dingley duties on Philippine products, which the Supreme Court had decided to have been unconstitutionally levied. But on the same day was published the report of our own Commissioners in the Philippines "earnestly recommending" that Congress "reduce by 50 per cent. the United States duty on tobacco, hemp, and sugar and other merchandise coming from these islands." Such a measure, affirm the Commissioners ("generosity" they call it), "would strengthen the bonds between the Filipino and American people." Out of our own mouths, therefore, we stand condemned. We do not need to hark back to Burke on the criminal folly of strangling the trade of colonies by tariffs and restrictions. Let Judge Taft, our own trusted agent in the Philippines, be our mentor. The action of the House was a blow full in his face.

Ignorant though they were of the urgent recommendations of the Philippine Commission, five Republicans broke away from their party in the vote on this tariff. Two of them—Messrs. McCall and Littlefield—by common consent stand for ability and character unsurpassed in the party, or in the House. Only the sternest pressure of conviction and of duty could have driven them to sever themselves from their fellow-Republicans. Why they were compelled to do so was clearly explained by Representative McCall. He had believed the annexation of the Philippines to be, from the beginning, an "infatuated policy." The present bill he regarded as inexpedient, unprincipled, and un-American. For his part, he was convinced that national honor, the integrity of republican institutions, our future peace and safety, together with every dictate of interest and justice, "demand that

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we shall now so shape our steps that we may return to the God of our fathers."

This is the moral sword which is thrust into the vitals of the Republican party by our national treatment of the Filipinos. The division and dissent will be more marked as time goes on. We know of several Republican Congressmen who are privately crying out against the policy of retaining the Philippines, and who are only waiting occasion to ripen in order to publish their position. The tariff bill has yet to face the Senate, and justice will surely not be without its witnesses in that body. By the time the debate of the Senators comes on, the Philippine Commission's report will be seen to throw a strong light on the disastrous nature of the tariff bill. And it is to be hoped, too, that a sentiment of public indignation will be aroused, as at the time of the proposed Porto Rican tariff, to uphold the hands of those who believe that magnanimity to the Filipinos is the truest wisdom. For it is, at bottom, the modern spirit of humanity that makes most strongly against that application of the barbarous old colonial system which is proposed by the Republicans at Washington.

The fact that three Democrats voted for the Philippine Tariff Bill is comfortably taken, in some quarters, as a fair offset to the action of five Republicans in voting against it. Just the ordinary slight disregard of party lines, it is said. But the significant truth is, that the five broke away from party for the sake of principle, and the three for the sake of sugar. The Louisiana Democrats practically said to the Republican majority: "We see in your bill a recognition of those selfish notions of monopolistic taxation for which we stand. You mean to tax the Filipinos so as to prevent them from competing with us. You regard as perfect 'rot' the talk about being generous to the islanders, and would let them starve before you would take off a penny of their taxes. Those are our sentiments, too, and we are with you." This attitude really confirms and completes the condemnation of the bill expressed by the bolting Republicans. They charged that the measure was one of ruthless greed, and, to prove it so, had only to point to its support by the dissident Democrats who frankly accepted it as such. Thus, those who voted for it in defiance of party merely deepened the stigma placed upon it by those who forsook their colleagues to vote against it. The moral riddling of the bill was the more thorough for being double-barrelled.

We can but think that Secretary Root and President Roosevelt are making a grave mistake in assenting to, if they do not advise, the passage of the Philippine tariff bill, and that because of its necessarily harmful effect upon another project near their hearts. We refer to tariff relief for Cuba. This they mean to bend all their energies to obtain from Congress. But with what grace can it be asked for Cubans when denied to Filipinos? The latter are American citizens; the Cubans are foreigners. Will Congress be like flint to the prayers of its own, and relent at the petition of aliens? The Secretary and the President may think that a sullen and selfish protectionism will be more apt to be generous to the Cubans after having been allowed to make spoil of the Filipinos. But that is not the law of greed: it grows by what it feeds upon, and becomes more insolent with every triumph. This is the reason why we fear that the Administration, if it consents to tariff injustice in the Philippines, will make the removal of tariff injustice to Cuba more difficult, if not impossible.

The really crushing nature of the Philippine burden, however, appears in something other than these embarrassments of party management and Administration policy. Not even the enormous cost to us in money and life tells the whole story, or constitutes the main reason why American statesmanship should apply itself to the loosing of the Philippine burden at the earliest possible day. What we have got to see as a people is that we went on the wrong track in the Philippine venture from the first day; that it committed us to un-American ideas of human rights and government, and set us at war with all our past. It is said that, when Thiers met Ranke in Vienna during the fatal winter of 1870, he asked him, "With whom are you now fighting since the fall of the Emperor?" "With Louis XIV.," replied the German historian. It is, in like manner, George III. and Lord North with whom we opponents of the Philippine policy are still fighting. We cannot consent that those discredited rulers shall be dug out of their graves and allowed to dictate for us, in the American name, a colonial policy which drove America to revolt.

THE FUTURE OF COAL EXPORTS.

English coal-miners are just now suffering from another of their periodic chills, caused by the fear that they may have to share Continental markets with the United States. The immediate danger is not very apparent, since the latest returns of the Bureau of Statistics show that we exported only 6,403,008 tons of coal during the first ten months of the current year, as against 6,572,597 tons during the same period in 1900. Even if attention be confined to France and Germany, our two most favorable European markets, the actual increase over last year's exports is slight. In fact, our whole existing Continental trade in coal is relatively insignificant.

It is, however, acutely pointed out by the London *Economist* that "the exact extent which [American] exports have attained, is not material." The British coal trade is alarmed at certain tendencies which indicate that the present rudimentary export trade in American coal may grow to much greater importance. And undoubtedly there is some warrant for this apprehension. While our actual sales to Germany have been small, the present low freights are likely to increase them. Large recent purchases are reported, one Berlin wholesaler having contracted for 100,000 tons of anthracite. More important than this, many German consumers either prefer our anthracite, or recognize it as equal to the Welsh product, while, notwithstanding the crumbling suffered by our bituminous coal in transit, some authorities believe that it may compete successfully with German coal of the same character, so far as quality is concerned. It is not to be questioned that a great potential market for American coal exists on the Continent. About 12,000,000 tons are annually imported by France, 7,000,000 in round numbers by Germany, 6,000,000 by Austria, 3,000,000 by Sweden, and 4,000,000 by Italy. These quantities will be increased as manufacturing progresses and Continental mines deepen.

But the greatest impetus to the export of American coal comes from the industrial dissension caused by the trades-unions among the Welsh miners. Their power surpasses anything of the kind ever known in the United States, and their ability to control the conditions of production was clearly shown last autumn, when they fixed the "minimum" wage that will rule for two years. Moreover, they have recently insisted on a series of "stop days" at the mines, with a view to raising prices by limiting production—their wages increasing, on the sliding-scale principle, with the market price of the product. As a matter of fact, prices have not risen, though it may well be argued that the action of the miners has probably kept them from declining. The Welsh miners have forgotten that our output is now the largest in the world, and that consequently the price in any market must be determined by our cost of production, plus the cost of shipment to the point of consumption.

It is not to be expected that the Welsh miners will in the immediate future either relax their regulations or accept lower wages. The price of English coal is not, therefore, likely to decline. But the outlook for continued low freights for American coal is less satisfactory. Present rates are largely accidental and temporary. There has been, for reasons perfectly understood in shipping circles, a great relative increase in the amount of foreign and domestic tonnage offering its services to American shippers. Freights have, in consequence, declined, and

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though they are by no means so low for coal as for other exports, they are far below the point at which they normally stand. But such a situation cannot be permanent. How to continue a scale of freights which will permit our coal to go abroad is now the problem.

That it may be solved, there is every reason to believe. In the first place, the flourishing condition of our shipyards and the skill shown in the construction of our vessels fully warrant the opinion that a new and economical type of ocean-carrier, especially suited to the demands of the coal business, will be turned out. The ships built for the grain and ore trade on the Great Lakes show what may be expected from American ingenuity. Moreover, the recent address of Mr. Schwab before the meeting of the naval architects and marine engineers in New York reveals how great is the incentive for the Steel Corporation to promote the development of such a fleet of American vessels. There is a close connection between our powerful interests in steel manufacture and ship-building, on the one hand, and our coal exports, on the other. It is highly desirable that there be at hand a staple to provide a permanent supply of freight when ordinary shipments are short. Our manufactures do not go abroad in equal quantities at all seasons of the year, and exports of corn and wheat are subject to slack times. Coal, it is evident, would fill an exceedingly useful function as a resort in dull months.

While, however, there are thus encouraging prospects for foreign trade in American coal, one important difficulty has to be reckoned with. It will be far from easy, under the most favorable circumstances, for even a great combination to keep transportation charges down to a point which will permit coal exports unless return freights can be obtained. Our colliers ought to be able to count upon cargoes both ways. If, for instance, our vessels could return laden with Swedish iron ores, duty free, the problem of a coal trade in Northern Europe would be solved. In fact, it is not probable that any great expansion in our coal exports can be expected until some steps have been taken to provide bulky return freights. These can surely be obtained only by a reduction in our present customs duties. At whatever door we enter, in this whole question of developing foreign trade, that is the door where we invariably come out.

PROGRESS OF LABOR ARBITRATION.

A very important step toward the settlement of labor troubles in this country was taken on December 17, in the appointment of a permanent committee to consider methods of treating such difficulties as they may arise in the future. This was the result of a meeting of the National Civic Federation, which was in session in this city during the past week, and was attended by the leading representatives of organized labor and by a number of the largest employers of labor in the country, and had its proceedings reported from day to day in the press. The motion for a standing committee was made by Mr. Sargent, the chief of the Locomotive Firemen, and was supported by Mr. Gompers, Mr. Mitchell, and other well-known leaders of workingmen's organizations, as well as by Senator Hanna, Mr. Schwab, and other employers. The standing committee consists of an equal number from either side and a chosen number of citizens, who are neither employers nor employed, but whose reputation guarantees their impartiality, as well as their mental equipment and fitness for this kind of service.

Though holding, as we do, that this is the right road towards industrial peace, we do not expect that all labor difficulties will be put to rest, or that strikes will soon disappear from the land. In the nature of things, differences between employers and employed must arise. The progress of industry causes inequalities. The distribution of the joint product of labor and capital which is fair and satisfactory to both sides to-day, becomes unfair after a time. Prices change. The wages of any given period may bring to the wage-earner less of consumable goods after a while. The earnings of the employer may increase so that he ought to pay more. They may decline to a point where he must pay less, or stop altogether. Wages and profits are in a state of flux and reflux. Not only are they changing relatively to each other all the time, but some trades actually go out of existence. Canal-boating, for example, once the principal mode of transportation in the country, has disappeared from some of the States entirely, and in others lingers only in a comatose condition. The whaling industry, which once employed large fleets, is now barely alive. Already we are wondering whether the manufacture of submarine cables and overhead telegraph wires may not be superseded by a system of wireless electric communication.

Nature does not allow industry to stagnate. The relations of labor and capital have always been in a state of unrest, and always will be. The conflict between them will always continue, and, paradoxical as it may seem, ought to continue. Capital will grasp all that it can get, and labor must fight for its rights, or lapse into servitude. This is the testimony of the ages. The true interest of the human race lies in the equalization of opportunities and rewards, and to this end all public effort should be directed. That the movement inaugurated last week is in the right direction, may be inferred from the fact that it looks to the instruction and guidance of public opinion quite as much as to the settlement of disputes between employers and employed. If the gentlemen named as the standing committee accept the task assigned to them, they will assume a great responsibility, but the fruits of their labor will be of corresponding value to the country. It can hardly happen that a committee so constituted should fail in any given case to satisfy public opinion that its decision is the best and most equitable one possible under the circumstances. It is true that the decision so rendered will not be binding in law. This is not a plan for compulsory arbitration. It is a voluntary advisory tribunal, but its judgments, if accepted by public opinion as impartial and as based upon intelligent investigation, will be just as valid as those of a court of law, and as easily executed.

The plan proposed bears resemblance to the courts of conciliation and arbitration which prevail in the north of England. The history of those voluntary tribunals was compiled and published by the Department of Labor at Washington in its Bulletin of May, 1900, where the happy results may be studied. Of course such men as compose the standing committee appointed here cannot be expected to drop their own proper business and take up all cases of strikes or lockouts that arise, but they can organize a system of dealing with individual cases on the north-of-England plan, or devise one which they may think better suited to conditions in this country. Looking at the high character and authority of the names on the list, we shall be equally surprised and disappointed if the movement does not have very important and beneficent consequences.

EDUCATION AS A PUBLIC PERIL.

That Germany is over-educated was affirmed last week by the rector of the greatest German university, and he added that, in virtue of Mr. Carnegie's recent gift for a National University, America must guard against impractical ideals of education. "Mr. Carnegie's technical-school endowments showed that he was fully in harmony with the American spirit, but his latest proposal I am unable to commend"—so says the rector of the University of Berlin. Of course, such an opinion is more authoritative for Germany than for this country; and yet one may suspect that the great archæologist has merely yielded to a pessimism which is prevalent in higher academic circles throughout the world. Many a great specialist, under the weight of responsibilities and academic honors, repeats with a special unction Faust's monologue:

> "I have alas! Philosophy,
> Medicine, Jurisprudence too,
> And to my cost Theology,

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> With ardent labor, studied through,
> And here I stand, with all my lore,
> Poor fool, no wiser than before."

It was this mood which M. Brunetière rediscovered, and renamed "the bankruptcy of science."

But Dr. Kekulé probably meant, not that Germany is infected with this Faust spirit, but that the social order has suffered material harm through the lack of correspondence between the educational system and the vital needs of the land. Whether he is right or wrong in this matter could be decided only by one who is thoroughly familiar with the recent course of industry and commerce in Germany. If the gymnasium, the real-schule, and the university have withdrawn from labor and industrial activity a proportion of intelligence and of energy which, under the deadening influence of higher education, has become atrophied, then education has indeed become a peril to the state, and the most highly organized school and university system in the world is missing its end. But, before accepting so depressing a conclusion, one would like to be assured that Dr. Kekulé is not merely suffering from a graceful pessimism which at a certain age affects nearly all archæologists and art critics.

It is curious to note in this connection that the bitterest complaint of the danger of over-education has come, not from Germany or France, each with its splendid system of free education, but from England, which has practically no educational system at all. When the question of doing something for secondary education was up in Parliament last summer, Mr. Harold E. Gorst, private secretary to his father, Sir John Gorst, Vice-President of the Committee of the Council of Education, wrote a little treatise, entitled "The Curse of Education." This put his own father in the position of administering a national curse, and was, every one felt, in a way an impropriety; but Sir John Gorst's friends and enemies alike recognized that, even if education were a curse, Sir John meant to make the curse as light as possible for England. Curtis observed in 'Prue and I' that it is the much travelled who most insist upon the worthlessness of travel in comparison with the pleasures of the imagination, and so it appears that it is the highly educated who are heard in dispraise of education.

Of course there is a certain justice in views of this kind. It is possible for a formal education to fall far short of the making of a citizen. One can hardly doubt that the reiterated complaints that the French Lycée depresses and even corrupts its pupils, contain a dose of truth. What should be said is this, that in America, at least, we are far from experiencing the perils of education. We are as yet in no danger of producing an overtrained class which despises labor and industry. Our colleges, year by year, give back to active business an increasing proportion of their graduates. If danger there be in our present system, the danger is that of under-education, of young men slipping through their college course with only a minimum of intellectual culture, and being returned to active life with no finer set of ideals and resources than those who have gone directly from the schools to business. If the college will honestly do its duty by these young men and send them out with disciplined minds, we need have no fear that college education is being overdone.

There is even less prospect that we shall be over-supplied with universities, or that we shall turn too many young men from active affairs to the disinterested search for truth. It is probably true that there are too many institutions which, with insufficient force and equipment, try to do university work. The remedy for this is the upbuilding of great university foundations of so obvious a superiority that the over-ambitious institutions will be forced back to their proper collegiate basis. It is reported that Mr. Carnegie's foundation at Washington will not compete with the present universities, but will rather be a foundation for free research. However that may be, one can see in the prospect of a university at Washington nothing but good, provided that the university is guided by the highest ideals, and is content to go ahead no faster than it can go well. The problem of the "peril of education" may be a practical one in Germany; here it has scarcely even the pale dignity of an academic rating.

RICHARDSON REDIVIVUS.

The publication of Richardson's novels in twenty small volumes—by Chapman & Hall in London, in New York by Macmillan—may indicate a coming revival of that popular favor which the "father of the English novel" enjoyed during his life, and which remained constant for more than half a century. At all events, it shows an interest somewhere, and provides an opportunity for novel-readers to make his acquaintance at first-hand, and determine for themselves whether he has anything to say to the twentieth century, or whether the judgment of the nineteenth shall be confirmed by a relegation of 'Pamela,' 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison' to the respectable catalogue of books that no gentleman's library should be without. The times are at least not unpropitious for a rescue of these mighty letter-writers from the dust of the top shelves. Curiosity about literary forms is abroad, and leisure increases. Richardson demands, first of all, leisure, for to gallop through his works is to miss all his quality. His distinguished contemporaries (English, French, and other) talked a great deal about him, in lofty strains of discriminating praise. Johnson, of course, talked more and more memorably than anybody else, and perfectly hit the nail on the head when he said: "You must read him for the sentiment, and consider the story only as giving occasion to the sentiment." This "reading for the sentiment" can never be done in haste.

But Richardson's subjects were perhaps more to blame for his long neglect than was his prolixity. The subject may be briefly stated as seduction—seduction possible, probable, imminent; this, at least, in his best books, 'Pamela' and 'Clarissa.' The sentiments which he most ardently and minutely reveals are those of maiden breasts agitated about the preservation of their virtue, and this even before any "naughty assailant of innocence" is clearly in view. Early in the nineteenth century, as everybody knows, this subject disappeared from polite letters. Two maiden ladies, Maria Edgeworth and Jane Austen, very properly pushed it aside, and Sir Walter Scott laid it under taboo. The great novelists of the mid-century touched it shyly, apologetically; and not till the last decade was it restored to undeserved prominence—restored, strangely enough, by ladies (some of them, we believe, spinsters). So, whether for good or ill, the taboo has been lifted, and Richardson's subjects are no longer on the list of things not to be mentioned.

It is, indeed, not the subject, but the famous "rendering of the human heart," that may stand as an obstruction between Richardson and the moderns. By the "human heart," in his case, was and is always understood the female organ. His principal men, "Mr. B." and "Lovelace," are heartless rascals; they go about to "ruin" women as men go about daily labor—methodically, diligently, but without a thrill. Caricatures of real men of any time, they survived long in fiction, and still survive in the novels of Mr. Hall Caine and Miss Corelli, whose aristocratic males constantly pursue plebeian females, who as constantly evade. But it was believed that of the heart of woman Richardson had fathomed every secret, revealing even to itself unclassified shades of emotion and sentiment. On reading 'Clarissa,' the modern mind may share this contemporary faith, but must qualify it by recognizing that, during a century and a half, the heart of woman has expanded and changed even as her external life has expanded and changed. To those who cannot involuntarily slip the shackles of modern knowledge and feeling, Richardson's heart studies must appear limited, tedious, even ridiculous, and it is because such unconscious abandonment is not a common accomplishment that critics may for ever be able to count on him as one of their exclusive joys. On a famous occasion, when Clarissa went to the woodhouse to look for a letter from Miss Howe, she reports to that resourceful ally that she heard a "rustling behind a stack of wood." Presently she saw a man, who turned out to be Lovelace. "I could not scream out," she writes, "(yet attempted to scream the moment I saw a man; and again when I saw who it was); for I had no voice; and had I not caught hold of a prop which supported the old roof, I should have sunk." Pamela writes to her parents how, when she was undressing in the seeming security of Mrs. Jervis's presence, she heard a noise in the closet: "I said, Heaven protect us, but before I say

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my prayers, I must look into this closet. And so was going to it slipshod, when, O, dreadful! out rushed my master, in a rich silk and silver morning-gown." Pamela screamed, subsequently "fell into a fit," and, though she was a young and vigorous servant-girl, continued screaming and falling into fits for several days. Roughly speaking, these apparently inevitable consequences of the "sight of a man" (consequences not always dependent on suspicion of his evil intentions) serve to summarize Richardson's knowledge of what women were, and his notion of what they should be.

The quotations need no comment as illustrations of what we have said about the doubtfulness of resuscitation of Richardson's popularity. His place in literature has long been established, and his renown needs no bush. His personality is interesting, not for itself, but because it is so explanatory of his work. From his youth upward, to use his own phrase, he "kept his eye on the ladies"—a most chaste, if not a too discreet eye. From boyhood till old age he was surrounded by women prostrate in adoration. Mr. Gilbert's fictitious Bunthorne is a poor idol indeed beside that elderly, portly, rather pompous bookseller exacting worship from the humblest maids and the greatest ladies of England and of France. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu tried in her waspish way to sting him, but failed, and at last, in a burst of candor, admitted: "I eagerly read him, nay, sob over his works in a scandalous manner."

This new edition is a reproduction both of original texts and engravings, and includes the quaint explanatory title-pages, the author's criticisms of his characters, and his replies to criticisms and suggestions from his public. All that the general reader cares to know about the novelist's life, his high moral intentions, and the influence of his work on some great writers of France and of Germany, may be found in the pleasantly written introduction.

HAUPTMANN'S TRAGI-COMEDY.

BERLIN, December 14, 1901.

The dramatic and literary event of the season thus far has been the representation of Gerhart Hauptmann's "Der Rote Hahn," a tragi-comedy in four acts, at the Deutsches Theater, and the appearance of the play in book form. The demand for tickets for the first representation was enormous, and the curiosity of the public is not yet satisfied, as the continued crowding of the house shows. This general interest in a new play by Hauptmann is significant evidence of the honorable place which he has won for himself in Germany.

In view of the author's previous achievements, the play may be considered neither a failure nor a success. One reason for this lies near at hand. "Der Rote Hahn" is a sort of sequel of Hauptmann's successful comedy "Der Biberpelz," and shares the fate of most sequels in being inferior to the first work. The chief figure in both plays is Mrs. Wolff, now become, it is true, the wife of shoemaker Fielitz. The years of her widowhood and of her second marriage have, however, made no change in her character. From petty thieving in the first play she has progressed to the crime of arson in the second, but otherwise Hauptmann has succeeded in lending her no new interest. Her intellectual superiority to those about her, and the ease with which she makes them all puppets in her hands, are as evident in one play as the other. Except in the last part of "Der Rote Hahn," she acts in both plays from a kind of inner necessity which lifts her above trifling distinctions of *meum* and *tuum* and all considerations of right and wrong. If "Der Rote Hahn" was not to be a sort of copy of "Der Biberpelz," it was obvious that she must undergo some transformation; but Hauptmann's efforts in this direction have proved only partially successful. For this reason the play is necessarily disappointing.

The first act is a clever bit of exposition. The scene is the workshop of cobbler Fielitz, in some village near Berlin. The worthy pair are seated in the shop at the rising of the curtain. Mrs. Fielitz has already determined to burn the house for the sake of the insurance and to erect a modern structure on its site. Only the details of the plan need perfecting. A few practical suggestions from the husband, who is both fascinated and frightened by the scheme, make clear what is to come. The conversation between husband and wife suffers several interruptions. Wehrhahn, the stupid, conceited, and autocratic administrative head of the village, comes to try on a new pair of boots. Rauchhaupt and his idiotic son Gustav bring the iron cross for the grave of the lamented Wolff. Langheinrich, the village smith, meets them by appointment. The daughter Leontine joins the group to read the epitaph. Thus all the chief persons of the play appear in the shop in the course of the act, and give the spectator a clear impression of their individuality. All is life, movement, vigor. Though Fielitz declares to the end that he will have no part in his wife's plan, it is evident that the cleverly suggested temptations of a fine new shop and the long-desired "regulator" will yet prove too much for his weak virtue.

The second act is rather tiresome. Dr. Boxer (a Jewish physician of free-thinking proclivities, for whose presence in the play there seems no pressing necessity), the smith's helper, and later Langheinrich himself hold a long conversation under the shed of the smithy. From it we learn, to be sure, that the cobbler and his wife have gone to Berlin to buy the clock, and that the daughter has also left the house for the day; but the little that the first two-thirds of the act contains in the way of necessary information or helpful characterization is to be got only with difficulty from the desultory talk. Something happens, at least, in the last part of the act. The idiot boy, Gustav, who has a fondness for matches and fires, comes running in and imitates the tooting of the fireman's horn. When the others try to hold him back long enough to learn where the fire is, he rushes away, dropping a box of matches in his flight. We soon learn that fire has broken out in the Fielitz house, and the village firemen, of whom Langheinrich is the chief, hurry away to put out the flames.

On the evening of the first representation the applause of the audience at the end of the third act was rewarded by the appearance of the author on the stage. The applause was no meaningless compliment, nor was it unjustly bestowed. The act is full of dramatic movement and human interest. The scene is the office of Wehrhahn, some five hours after the outbreak of the fire. Mrs. Fielitz's plan has proved a brilliant success. The house has burned to the ground, and the suspicions of Wehrhahn have already fastened upon Gustav. He bullies the witnesses, and confirms himself every moment more in his own opinion, so that Mrs. Fielitz, on her entrance into the office after her return from Berlin, has her work already done for her. However much others in the room, such as Langheinrich, who has found a bit of fuse in the house, and Dr. Boxer, may suspect her, they venture on no comments to Wehrhahn. The boy is brought in by the police and his father sent for. With the coming of Rauchhaupt the scene approaches its climax. The idiot has been a burden heretofore, but now that he is about to be put in custody, the father's love and family pride awaken. He storms, threatens, implores, but all in vain. Gustav is led away, and the scene closes with Rauchhaupt's threat that he will yet fasten the guilt upon Mrs. Fielitz.

Every spectator waited for the rise of the curtain at the beginning of the fourth act, eager to see Hauptmann's solution of the problem which he had himself proposed. Whatever may have been his purpose in calling the play a tragi-comedy, it was at least clear that the name cut off all possibility of such an outcome as that of "Der Biberpelz," where Mrs. Wolff's cunning, fortified by Wehrhahn's impenetrable stupidity, was triumphant to the end. But this time even Wehrhahn is not wholly free from suspicion, while Langheinrich, Boxer, and others more than suspect, and Rauchhaupt is hot upon the trail. Hauptmann's solution is unsatisfactory, however, and the strength of the third act made the weak conclusion of the fourth doubly disappointing.

The scene is now an upper room in Langheinrich's house, where the Fielitz family is quartered temporarily. Opposite is the new house, very near completion. Mrs. Fielitz is an invalid, confined to her chair. The belief in her guilt is general in the village. Nevertheless, she has emerged in triumph from three separate investigations into the cause of the fire. Her intellectual superiority over the others is as manifest as ever, but the happy philosophy of earlier days and crimes is gone. She dreams of her own funeral and is inclined to pessimistic thoughts. Just what ails her is not so clear. Anxious she doubtless is, for Rauchhaupt has given her no rest, and comes again to-day to tell her that the net of suspicion is drawing closer about her and that punishment is near. It is difficult to believe that her conscience troubles her, for we see her still working, hand in hand with her precious son-in-law, to deceive her husband and to induce Rauchhaupt to sell his valuable piece of ground for a trifle. Such a tough old sinner cannot die from the pangs of a guilty conscience. Yet she does die quite unexpectedly a moment after the red cock (symbolic of its fiery origin) has been raised on the roof of the new house. It is difficult to ward off the suspicion that her death is not caused by apoplexy or a guilty conscience so much as by the *last act*, that dreadful disease of whose tremendous fatality Lessing speaks in his 'Dramaturgy.' Whatever may be its cause,

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her death is both unexpected and unsatisfactory, and gives the play a weak conclusion.

Of minor excellencies of "Der Rote Hahn" it is unnecessary to speak. They are numerous and finely wrought out. The humor is natural and effective, the drawing of the characters is careful and true. Unfortunately, all this cannot outweigh the weakness of the last act.

CHARLES HARRIS.

Correspondence.

THE SQUIERS COLLECTION AND BISHOP FAVIER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of the 12th of September last, there is a note concerning the collection from China which is about to find its way into a museum of your metropolis. In the note there is reference to the part of Bishop Favier in the history of the collection, and the conduct of that well-known and estimable missionary may perhaps be somewhat misrepresented, owing to the summary way in which the affair is recounted. Would you do him the justice of publishing a brief account of it from his own pen, which, moreover, may have further interest for your readers than that of representing the writer's conduct in its true light? He writes under date of November 1, 1901:

"Yan-li-chan [French spelling; the letter is in French] had a rather fine house near my residence; condemned to death, and executed by Prince Tuan, his house was pillaged by the Boxers, who burnt it and ran away, on the 16th of August. Some Christians saved from the flames four cases containing some beautiful pieces of porcelain. I put them in my residence, where I had already a beautiful collection, got together during thirty years, as everybody knew. This collection, in which was to be seen, among other pieces, a superb vase given me by the Empress, had to be sacrificed to send a little money to the 15,000 or 20,000 Christians in the province, who were in the same state [of indigence] as those in the city. It was said that no one was left of Yan-li-chan's family, but I noted apart all that came from what belonged to him, to deduct it from the indemnity, or to repay the amount to his heirs if any should turn up. Mr. Squiers chose what pleased him, from my collection or from among the objects of Yan-li-chan. He paid the price exactly, giving me a cheque for £1,000 sterling, which I distributed immediately among the unfortunate Christians of the province. This is the fact.

"Upon my return to Peking, towards the end of March, 1901, I learned that a son of Yan-li-chan was still living. I had him looked up, and invited him to come to see me. He came a few days later, thanked me heartily for having protected some other houses which belonged to him, and for having repaired the breach in the wall surrounding the large house that was burned, in order that no one might appropriate the property. I asked him if there had been a treasure hidden in his father's house. He answered that his father never kept money at home, and, indeed, I do not think any was found. I told him that I desired to return him the price of the objects saved by us from the fire and sold, and, in spite of his opposition, I obliged him to accept the exact value of the objects, giving him a cheque upon the Hong Kong Bank, and so paying him in full, as I had done to other individuals or shopkeepers."

The last clause refers to the individuals whose property the Bishop had been obliged to make free with, for the support of those who depended upon him, during the panic which followed the taking of Peking.

The Bishop goes on to say that he is on the best of terms with his pagan neighbors, and that since the siege they have baptized 1,400 adults, and received the names of 4,000 more, asking to become Christians. He then continues:

"I regret that the accusations against me should come from America, for I love and admire that country of true liberty for all. The United States ministers, generals, and admirals have been on the best relations with me; some of them I have counted as real friends. I am also on good terms with American Protestant ministers. I am, therefore, persuaded that these accusations proceed only from the want of exact information. At all events, then, I shall retain my esteem for my accusers, for they have been deceived, not deceivers."

WILLIAM L. HORNSBY.

MACAO, CHINA, November 13, 1901.

Notes.

The Century Company will print for the New England Society of this city the addresses, sermons, and poems delivered before it from 1820 to 1885, inclusive, in two volumes.

We must make a summary clearance of miniature editions on our table like those of Georges Newnes (London) and Scribners (New York), viz., Milton's Poems, a longish little book in limp covers, more elegant in binding and the adornments of the text than in the mere printing, which is, however, legible, if compact; De la Motte Fouqué's 'Undine, and Aslauga's Knight'; and Tennyson's 'In Memoriam'—this last illustrated with decorative feeling by Alfred Garth Jones. From Dent-Macmillan we have, among the "Temple Classics," Charles Reade's 'Peg Woffington,' with Peg's portrait; 'Stories from Le Morte Darthur and the Mabinogion,' by Beatrice Clay, with not remarkable illustrations by C. E. Hughes; and, best of all, an anonymous prose terzina-for-terzina translation of Dante's 'Purgatory,' with arguments, and the Italian text confronting the English. In Mr. A. R. Waller's "Cloister Library" (Dent-Macmillan), somewhat larger than the foregoing, we have Sir Arthur Helps's 'Thoughts in the Cloister and the Crowd, and Companions of My Solitude,' annotated and indexed—a charming volume. John Lane makes beginning of an Anthony Trollope revival with 'Doctor Thorne' and 'Barchester Towers' in plump and quaint form, each introduced by Algar Thorold, and each running up into seven or eight hundred pages. Finally, Miss Wormeley's translations of Balzac's "Comédie Humaine" are brought out in a pocket edition by Little, Brown & Co., Boston—four volumes, at the present writing, rather faint of print, but otherwise taking.

The aftermath of children's books is still considerable—if we may apply that term to publications too late in reaching us to receive mention before the holidays. Extremely attractive is 'Queen Mab's Fairy Realm' (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners), with its colored frontispiece and title-page, pen-and-ink illustrations (of good quality) by several hands, and excellent letterpress. "An original collection of tales from the literatures of England, Germany, France, and Spain," it is styled on the publishers' wrapper, but this does not imply that old favorites like Hauff's "Story of the Caliph Stork" and "Story of Little Muck" may not be found here. The rest are less familiar. The translations are somewhat lacking in simplicity and fluidity, but they will deprave no child's English. A very comely book, also, is Ellen Rolfe Veblen's 'The Goosenbury Pilgrims: A Child's Drama' (University of Chicago Press). It is a phantasy of Mother Goose's characters going abroad to see the world, but, while it is sprightly and cleverly written, we have failed to find it amusing. Children may differ with us, however. Frances S. Brewster's 'When Mother Was a Little Girl' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is a true story, mostly of life in western Massachusetts, but also telling of a trip out West, of a visit to Niagara Falls, and of civil-war times. The narrative is wholly unpretentious, and is likely to interest. It is well printed, and has several photographic scenic illustrations. By way of appendix are inserted specimens of Cousin Lucy's stories to the little girl—somewhat poetic renderings of classical mythology, with inventions in ornithology and entomology.

Real natural history is served up in Edward B. Clark's 'Birds of Lakeside and Prairie' (Chicago and New York: A. W. Mumford), with sixteen full-page illustrations in color. Mr. Clark has much to tell in a plain and familiar way of his observations of birds in Chicago, among hills and prairies, often with the camera. He is a wholesome companion for any boy or girl. The same author and publisher send us 'Bird Jingles,' a thin quarto with larger and more effective colored plates (likewise from stuffed specimens), and with rhyming characterizations correct in metre and of a pleasant humor. A part of the illustrations reappear in Mary Catherine Judd's 'A-B-C Book of Birds' (A. W. Mumford). Each plate is attended by an account of the bird, even to its scientific name, and by what the author calls "nonsense rhymes for little ones"; but they are really very sensible, and much above the average of verse for children—witness the witty line (of the Ibis): "That bill, it is so very long Your shortest note must be a song." The curious may compare Mr. Clark's lines on the whippoorwill with Mrs. Judd's. We heartily commend her book for holiday time and all times.

To the foregoing, Mr. Mumford adds a Bird Calendar for 1902, in six gray sheets, each showing a colored bird.

The interesting essays styled 'Animals of the Past,' by Frederic A. Lucas (McClure, Phillips & Co.), are somewhat in the style of newspaper articles for general readers. They are disconnected talks upon extinct birds, reptiles, and mammals, chiefly the gigantic, on what is known of them and how it was learned. The matter is mostly drawn from original descriptions or from the relics, and (the author knowing pretty well what has been discovered) is much more accurate than that of most writers who undertake the discussion of the fragmentary data relating to the fossil creatures from the bone beds, the caves, and the marshes. Comparatively few are discussed, consequently a good deal of the text relates to them but indirectly. For a definition of fossils the following is given: "Fossils are the remains, or even the indications, of

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animals and plants that have, through natural agencies, been buried in the earth and preserved for long periods of time." This is instead of the etymological definition, "something that is or may be dug out of the earth," which has the advantage of making no restriction to animals and plants, making no mention of agencies, and placing no limits in time.

'Fowls of the Air' and 'Beasts of the Field' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) are attractive uniform volumes of sketches by William J. Long, which, in substance as well as illustrations, are somewhat suggestive of Mr. Seton-Thompson's work. The author has fished and hunted in Canada; and the side glimpses of his camp-life in the wilderness with the Indian guide Simmo, of trout-fishing, canoeing, and caribou-hunting, add not a little charm to his accounts of animals. His style is highly specific, with an enthusiasm in description that inclines to the superlative; and he sets the scenes of his little woodland dramas with good effect. He uses the names given to the animals by the Milicite Indians, and relates legends heard by him before the camp-fire. The book on mammals is superior to the one on birds. It shadows big game—caribou, bear, and moose—through their forest haunts, and makes intimate revelations of some of their habits and moods; and it enters into companionship with small animals like the squirrel, "Meeko, the Mischief-Maker," and the white-footed mouse, "Tookhees, the 'Fraid One," who repay camp bounties by their confidence. Other interesting sketches discuss the otter, the weasel, and the lynx. Mr. Long's experience with both birds and mammals seems to have been rich in uncommon incidents; and specialists, who hesitate to accept unreservedly the records of laymen, may regard some of them as questionable. The books are dedicated to the teachers of America who are striving to reveal "a vast realm of nature outside the realm of science, and a world of ideas above and beyond the world of facts."

Mr. J. D. M. Ford's 'Spanish Anthology' (Silver, Burdett & Co.) is an excellent little book, likely to prove serviceable in the class-room, and of interest to any one qualified to read it. The immense field of Spanish lyric poetry, with its surface eloquence and underlying mysticism, affords an exceptional opportunity to the poetical flower-gatherer. Mr. Ford has been equal to the opportunity. He has perused the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles" and other scattered sources with great diligence, and has culled a selection of lyric poetry which, within the limits of space, adequately represents the development of Castilian song. The historical and metrical introduction is concise and skilfully managed. The notes are well done, with enough biographical and critical matter to assist the student in getting some notion of the perspective of Peninsular poetry in its relation to European literature in general. In view of the recent and sudden increase of interest in the Spanish language and literature, the book is especially timely, and on the same account the care with which it has been done is the more to be commended.

'How to Make Money in the Printing Business' has a pleasing sound. It reminds one of those alluring advertisements of boyhood days—"Buy a $3 press and make Big Money printing cards, bill-heads, etc., for your friends!" Many craftsmen, no doubt, will get this book in the despairing hope of finding out what they never have been able to learn by experience. A facetious one will probably lay it down and remark that the best way, after all, if not the only way, to make money in the printing business is to get a few good plates of high denominations, and run night and day until the Secret-Service people conclude you have made enough. The book contains many excellent observations of the axiomatic kind, and the careless printer is repeatedly warned, by anecdote and illustration, of the pitfalls between him and success. The paper, unfortunately, is of the heavy-weight order, due to an excess of mineral ingredients, and indifferent presswork gives the type the appearance of having made money for its owner for some years. The Lotus Press publishes this book.

Nothing betrays more forcibly the passing away of the sailing ship than that new literature which deals exclusively with adventures on Atlantic "liners" and steam "tramps." In 'The Derelict,' which gives the name to a series of nautical tales (Scribners), Mr. Cutcliffe Hyne tells exclusively of incidents relating to steam-driven vessels. Sea terms and the technical lingo of the sailing ship are ignored. In their place we have the vernacular of the "smoking-room" and the argot of Scotch engineers. In this case the dialect is softened so as to be comprehensible to a man of average intelligence. 'The Derelict' tells of what may befall, at sea, a steamer, its passengers and crew. The stories are pleasantly related, but they hardly attain to the level ascribed them by an English critic, who says that, "in his tales of the sea, in his pictures of life on reckless traders, in his types of dare-devil seamen, Mr. Hyne is only equalled by Rudyard Kipling."

The compilers of '365 Breakfast Dishes' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) have wisely shared responsibility. Mrs. Lincoln, Mrs. Lemcke, *Table Talk*, the Boston Cooking School Magazine, and others have contributed to the polyglot production. To which one shall be ascribed the recipe for "Oysters à la poulette," on page 66? Direct accusation will probably meet with prompt denial, for of all the weird combinations of which this particular dish has been made the victim, the one in the present volume is the most inadequate. *Table Talk* of Philadelphia is boldly accused of being responsible for many of the recipes; but whether this is the outcome of malice, or homage to local pride, it is difficult to determine. The recipes contained in the volume must be looked upon as mere hints, capable of development at the hands of an experienced cook, but bewildering to the untrained young housewife, to whom such a compilation should be the more helpful.

Prof. S. P. Langley contributes to the *National Geographic Magazine* for December an entertaining diary, with illustrations, of a recent visit to Tahiti, with incidental description of a "fire-walk." The pit containing the stones was "about 9 feet by 20 feet, by 18 inches deep," and, at the time of the exhibition, "the upper stones were none of them red-hot on top; the lower ones, two layers deep, however, could be seen to glow between the others, but they were only near red-hot in the centre." A number of persons followed the priest in his walk, some of them whites, who stopped "long enough to lean over and lightly and quickly touch the hottest stones with their hands. Mr. Ducarron walked to the centre, and stood there shifting his feet (he had on thin shoes) from stone to stone for about ten seconds before finding it too hot to stay." Professor Langley secured one of the stones, which was found to be very porous, and "so non-conductible that a small fragment could be held in the fingers like a stick of sealing-wax while the other end was made red-hot in a blow-pipe. This non-conductibility is evidently the principal cause of the success of the fire-walk 'miracle.'" Some facts in regard to the incomplete survey of the boundary of Texas by J. H. Clark in 1859-'62 are given by M. Baker, who urges a resurvey "before the discovery of oil or mineral shall provoke a boundary dispute." In a note on the census it is shown that "the most literate element of the male population of the United States is the native white of foreign-born parents. Ninety-eight of every 100 men twenty-one years of age or over, who were born in this country of white foreign parents, can read and write!"

Some of the human problems connected with the geography of South America are discussed by Dr. F. P. Moreno in the *Geographical Journal* for December. The remains scattered throughout the continent he holds to indicate, not only that man has existed there from a very remote period, but also that, contrary to the general belief of anthropologists, the founders of the old civilizations of Peru and Bolivia are older than the ancestors of the Pueblos. "I remember that the science of palæontology has demonstrated that the pampean mammals migrated from south to Mexico and the United States, and it is not impossible that men may have taken the same northward route." Other articles are upon recent surveys of the proposed Sudan-Abyssinian frontier, and upon the mapping of Africa, in which the training of native topographers, to do in the unexplored parts of Africa a work similar to that performed by the native Indian surveyors for Central Asia, is urged. A short account of Lhasa is illustrated by some interesting pictures, one being the copy of a photograph, by a Nepalese, of the palace of the Grand Lama, a truly stupendous structure, with walls probably over 300 feet high.

Germany occupies the principal place in the Consular Reports for December, the new insurance law being printed in full. The most important provisions, as concerns this country, consist in the placing of all foreign insurance companies under control of a special bureau of the Imperial Government, and therefore "on a uniform and much broader basis than hitherto." It is stated that, in the three years before the Spanish war, the value of Hamburg exports to Cuba averaged about half a million dollars. In 1900 Hamburg shipped "goods to the value of over $2,000,000," and the North German Lloyd proposes to have a bi-monthly service from Bremen to Cuba, beginning next February. (All Germany's exports to Cuba for the fiscal year amount to $3,400,000.) Some facts are given in regard to "weather shooting" in France and Italy; and a largely increased output of gold in Madagascar is noted, which has caused a rush of gold-seekers to the mines.

At the forty-ninth annual meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society on De-

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cember 12, the titles in its library were 226,646, about half of them of bound volumes. The last year's increase was 6,712 books and 5,628 pamphlets. A collection of works on a single specialty, the Mormon question (2,300 titles), has also been deposited in the library, and may remain in permanence. The Society has only the binding fund of $30,000 and the antiquarian fund of $5,000 invested, but it receives by direct appropriations $20,000 a year from the State. As the beginning of an art department it has just received $4,000, the avails of jewels presented by Mrs. Mary M. Adams, whose husband, Charles Kendall Adams, has been for the last seven years President of the University of Wisconsin. Obliged by ill-health to resign his office, Dr. Adams and his wife have united in giving to the museum of the Historical Society their pictures, marbles, bronzes, and other articles of *virtù*, the accumulations of a lifetime. The market value of this farewell gift has been estimated at $60,000.

Cornell joins the list of college calendars, but, though latest, we cannot pronounce it most tasteful or artistic. It is more distinctly than the others for home consumption. In size, Vassar outstrips all, and Hulda Parton's colored emblems of the four seasons compare favorably with Bryn Mawr's.

—The Massachusetts Historical Society, it is pretty well known, is the oldest society of its kind in America. Its membership is by its charter limited to one hundred citizens of Massachusetts, while its practice is to have not more than fifty corresponding and ten honorary members, neither class numbering residents of Massachusetts. Its honorary list is, moreover, strictly confined to historical writers, American or European, who have achieved an international reputation or brought out some work of rare and exceptional value. To place a name on its honorary roll is, therefore, on the part of this society, much what the "crowning" of an historical production is on the part of the French Academy. Until its late meeting the honorary roll of the Massachusetts society had latterly contained but seven names. David Masson, Theodor Mommsen, W. E. H. Lecky, Carl Schurz, S. R. Gardiner, James Bryce, and Sir George Otto Trevelyan. After careful consideration, extending over several months, it was at the last meeting of the Society, on the 12th of December, unanimously voted to place on the honorary roll the name of Pasquale Villari of Florence. The long and honorable record of Dr. Villari, and the international reputation of his Life of Savonarola, afford ample grounds for the distinguished compliment thus conferred.

—Unusual interest attaches to a handsome volume just issued from the press of the Free Academy at Norwich, Conn., and the handiwork of the pupils of that institution and the Art School in composition, illustration, presswork, and binding. It is a reprint for the third time of the Journal of Madam Sarah (Kemble) Knight, who rode on business from Boston to New York in 1704, returning in December, substantially over the route now known in railroad parlance as the Shore Line. She was a widow, a woman of affairs, well bred and connected, intelligent and humorous, courageous, given to putting down her experiences in verse above the average of her time; and this record of her adventures and of settlements and manners along her way was highly rated for its historical value as soon as discovered. It makes also very good reading, and brings the writer nearer to us as flesh and blood than is often the case with her contemporaries of two centuries ago. Her observations on slavery in Connecticut are curious. She found the people "too Indulgent (especially y^e^ farmers) to their slaves, sufering too great familiarity from them, permitting y^m^ to sit at Table and eat with them, (as they say to save time),"—this may have been President Roosevelt's pretext for entertaining Booker Washington—"and into the dish goes the black hoof as freely as the white hand." She tells of a farmer who fell out with his slave over a broken promise. "But at length they put the matter to Arbitration and Bound themselves to stand to the award of such as they named—w^ch^ done, the Arbitrators having heard the allegations of both parties, Order the master to pay 40^s^ to black face, and acknowledge his fault. And so the matter ended: the poor master very honestly standing to the award." To the single erratum acknowledged by the makers of this highly laudable product of the printer's craft, we presume two more should be added: On page 27, Madam "Billings" should obviously be "Belcher," and on page 30, in the tenth line, "now" should be "more." The edition is limited to 210 copies. It may be had of Dodd, Mead & Co., or Messrs. Scribner.

—The qualified approval with which we noticed Dr. E. E. Sparks's 'Expansion of the American People' must be further modified in the case of Mr. James K. Hosmer's 'Short History of the Mississippi Valley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Hosmer has had, apparently, the laudable purpose of condensing into one small volume the history of the region whose acquisition the approaching centenary of the Louisiana purchase is shortly to celebrate. His range is certainly wide. He begins with prehistoric times, and ends with some remarks about the evils of Trusts and the possible benefits of Governmental control of railroads. In between, he chats about the early explorations, the Ordinance of 1787, the settlement of Kentucky and Tennessee, the Louisiana cession, Burr's conspiracy, and the Civil War. The style, though over-picturesque, is entertaining and readable, but there is a dearth of substance. Not only does the volume contain nothing new, but the substantial information presented hardly exceeds the veriest commonplaces of the school-books. Large areas of the subject are either passed by altogether, or merely glanced at, while the treatment of the remainder suffers everywhere from excessive generalization. The history of the Mississippi valley is certainly easier to handle connectedly than is the history of the occupation of the Atlantic seaboard, which thus far has pretty effectually resisted every attempt to set it forth with unity, and it is, moreover, a subject which we shall probably hear a good deal more about in the next few years; but Mr. Hosmer's work, though likely, we fancy, to be considerably read, need not deter any one else from entering upon a similar undertaking.

—In their 'Select Documents of English Constitutional History' (Macmillan) Prof. G. B. Adams of Yale and Prof. H. Morse Stephens of Cornell furnish a useful handbook for teachers and students. Unlike the previous compilations of Stubbs, Prothero, and Gardiner, this volume is comprehensive, and it also differs from the same predecessors by dispensing altogether with introduction and prefaces. Apart from four pages of general preface, it contains documents only; and as the selections chosen number 276, the average space allotted to each is not considerable. In many cases compression has been secured by a process of abridgment (for example, the Reform Act of 1832 is cut down to the very moderate compass of thirteen octavo pages), while sometimes (witness the Education Act of 1870) the editors are content to give so meagre a version of the measure that only its essential features are indicated. We are describing the expedient whereby it becomes possible to present so many state papers, or their essence, within such narrow limits of space, and we do not in the least object to what might be called by a hostile critic "mutilation." The book is simply designed to help those who are beginning the study of English constitutional history by putting before them the most important texts. There can be no objection to translating passages from Latin or French for the help of such readers, or to giving them no more than the salient features of a modern Act of Parliament. The editors carefully disclaim all rivalry with Stubbs, Prothero, and Gardiner, to whose introductions they accord the praise that is their due and from whose works they have drawn considerable material. "It is to be hoped," says the preface, "that one of the results of using this compilation with undergraduate classes will be to attract attention to the interest and importance of the study of documents, so that more advanced students will turn to the more full and elaborate editions of these distinguished scholars." The date 1485 marks the division of labor, Professor Adams taking in charge the documents of the mediæval period, and Professor Stephens assuming a similar responsibility for the centuries which lie on this side of Henry VII. Both editors have exercised the power of choice with great judgment, and their book will contribute much to the sound teaching of constitutional history.

—'The Monastery of San Marco,' by Miss G. S. Godkin (Dutton), is a small but beautifully printed volume which contains six essays upon the most celebrated Dominicans of Florence and the cloister where their lives were led. Savonarola, naturally, is the outstanding figure, around whom are clustered St. Antonino, Fra Angelico, and Fra Bartolommeo. The establishment of the monastery and the sequel to Savonarola's martyrdom are the subjects of separate chapters, but the writer's interests may be said to be almost wholly biographical. To her Savonarola appears in his most exalted mien as the prophet of holiness amid a perverse people. "Where he failed, the fault was theirs; inasmuch as he succeeded, the glory was his." Nor can she admit that he was led by selfishness or ambition to use his power wrongly. "The more we read of the evidence of those who knew the great Frate intimately, and of his own writings and private correspondence, the more we feel disposed to acquit him of any

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preconceived designs of meddling in politics." Of the other friars who are noticed, St. Antonino is the least familiar, and he is given, probably on that account, more prominence than either Fra Angelico or Fra Bartolommeo. The concluding essay contains a sketch of the monastery as it is to-day, a "national monument" and a museum. This choice and gracefully written book will perhaps be most useful to those who know not Florence, though readers who are already familiar with the city and its history can hardly fail to be attracted by Miss Godkin's sympathetic description of San Marco as it was in the days of its fame and influence.

—Nearly twelve years ago, on its first publication, we welcomed 'Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification,' by Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco; we are glad now to call attention to a new edition, revised and enlarged, of this admirable work (London: Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The revisions are slight, but the new chapter, on Duke Sigismondo Castromediano, adds a figure of strange interest and of real importance to this collection of portraits. Countess Cesaresco introduces heroes whom the world outside of Italy knows too little about; indeed, all of them, except Manin and Ricasoli, who enjoyed international celebrity during their lifetime, cannot be studied in English at all except through her book. The Italian struggle for independence was particularly rich in remarkable individuals. It formed a great contrast in this respect to the German Liberal movement—the very memory of whose leaders has been cast into oblivion by Bismarck, the personification of anti-Liberalism—and to the French Revolutionists of 1848, whose personality has grown dim. In Italy, besides the great leaders—Cavour, Garibaldi, Victor Emanuel, Mazzini—there sprang up a group of patriots, differing widely among themselves in station, in idiosyncrasy, in action, and in fortune, but alike in essential nobility of character and in charm. Countess Cesaresco describes, in addition to the three already mentioned, Settembrini, the Neapolitan victim of Bomba's rigor; Martinengo, the Brescian aristocrat; the Poerio brothers; Constance d'Azeglio, the Piedmontese *grande dame*, whose 'Souvenirs' place her among the shrewdest and wittiest women of her time; Mameli, the boy-poet, killed at Rome; Ugo Bassi, the priest-patriot, shot by the Austrians; Nino Bixio, an Italian naval version of Col. Roosevelt of the Rough Riders; and the Cairoli brothers, the last of whom became Prime Minister of King Humbert. Countess Cesaresco writes of these men with enthusiasm; she draws her portraits with unusual skill; and she is able, thanks to her personal relations, to supply many interesting details not to be found elsewhere in print. If the originals of these 'Characters' had been Greeks and Romans, every schoolboy, as the late Professor Child aptly remarked, would know their names and glory in their deeds.

RIDGEWAY'S EARLY AGE OF GREECE.

The Early Age of Greece. By William Ridgeway, M.A., Disney Professor of Archæology in the University of Cambridge. In two volumes. Vol. I. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1901.

The study of classical archæology has done much in recent years towards filling the chasm between the historical and the heroic periods of ancient Greece. The boundaries of the historical period have been pushed further back, and much of the mist of the mythical age has been dispelled. A quarter of a century ago, many scholars, under Max Müller's influence, believed the story of the Trojan War to be only a form of the Dawn myth, in which the powers of the East and the West were contending for the possession of the beautiful Dawn. In 1879 a serious refutation was needed of the view that the treasures of gold and art found at Mycenæ were due to Celtic invaders of Greece in the third century of our era; and some of the decorations of the Mycenæan tombs were attributed by reputable archæologists to Byzantine workmen, although in the preceding year Sir Charles Newton had called attention to remains of the same culture on other early sites. The extensive collection of Mycenæan pottery found at Ialysus in Rhodes, and presented by Ruskin to the British Museum, until then had been allowed to lie in obscurity in the basement. But the archæologists of to-day have a more precise knowledge of the art and culture of the Mycenæan age than their predecessors had thirty years ago of the art and culture of the sixth century B. C., although we are still ignorant of the names of the Mycenæan leaders. That these had a script, we now know, and scholars sooner or later will decipher it. The Homeric story, instead of being drawn from the imagination with no basis but a strife for the Dawn, is found to be in accordance with very real facts. Troy and Mycenæ, the city of old Priam and the fortress of the "king of men," Agamemnon, existed at the same time, with similar culture as represented in the poems, and deserve the epithets which the Homeric poet applied to them.

A generation ago, archæologists contended that the poet must have drawn from his imagination his accounts of works of art, for he could have seen nothing so splendid; while now they say that the objects described by the poet are so far inferior to those which have been found on Mycenæan sites that he must have lived in an age of decadence. Scholars no longer find half their old amusement in Schliemann's belief that Agamemnon was a real person, and led the army against Troy. They are aware that some of the thousands of inscribed tablets which have been found in Crete within the last two years may contain definite contemporary evidence with regard to the Trojan war, though the fall of Cretan Cnossus seems to have preceded that of Troy. We may yet find a letter from Agamemnon to Idomeneus of Crete, or a report from the army in the field. No one can safely predict what we may not learn about early Greece from the Cretan explorations, and most cautious scholars are reserving the statement of their theories for a more complete knowledge of facts. The exploration of Crete has only begun, and we still await from Dörpfeld the final publication of the results of the excavations on the site of ancient Troy.

Much, indeed, is already known definitely with regard to the early age of Greece, and future discoveries are not likely to affect materially the main conclusions of the book before us. This book does not aim, like the excellent 'Mycenæan Age,' by Tsountas and Manatt, to which we called attention four years ago, to give either a complete picture of the early age of Greece for the benefit of the ordinary intelligent reader, or a systematic account of the results of recent excavations. It is rather a technical book, intended primarily for the author's peers—historians, archæologists, and philologists—though its style is never heavy, and it contains much matter of general interest. It is "an attempt to aid in the solution of some of the chief problems of early Greek history by the employment of the inductive method." The first volume treats of the monumental, traditional, and linguistic aspects of the subject, while "the second volume . . . will chiefly deal with institutions and religion." The first chapter, of eighty pages, treats of the remains and their distribution; the second, more than 200 pages, and nearly a third of the work, discusses the question, Who were the makers of the Mycenæan civilization? The third chapter is devoted to the Homeric age, and the following discuss the early home of the Achæans, the early iron age, the round shield; inhumation, cremation, and the soul; the brooch, iron, and the Homeric dialect. That these topics are not exactly coördinate is clear, and some points are brought up for discussion more than once. The treatment of monumental evidence is eminently satisfactory. The enumeration of the sites where Mycenæan objects have been found, and the statement of the principal discoveries, are clear, concise, and complete. The discussion of the old great trade routes from northern to southern Europe is excellent, and is accompanied by the interesting observation that amber beads are found in comparatively poorly furnished graves along these routes, and the remark that the invaders from the north, whether in small parties or in larger hordes, naturally followed the roads by which traders had gone. The chapters on the development of the brooch and on cremation are also instructive.

The author, however, never allows his main thesis to remain long hidden from view, and the whole work is composed to support this: The Mycenæans were Pelasgians; the Achæans who overcame and succeeded them were Celts, who came from Jutland by way of central Europe. Remains of vast fortresses, magnificent palaces, and great tombs, with objects of gold and terra-cotta vases of like technic, are found in Argolis, Laconia, Attica, Bœotia, Thessaly, Crete, Cyprus, and the other Greek islands, the Troad, and Italy, and all testify to the existence in the second half of the second millennium B. C. of a powerful race which developed its civilization from that of the stone age. This civilization reached its highest perfection in the Argolid, where still remain the ruins of Mycenæ, Tiryns, Midea, and the Argive Heræum. It seems to have been developed from within, though naturally under the influence of the other peoples with which it came in contact. In Attica and on the islands, says our author, it passed gradually into that of the classical period; in Cyprus it lasted longest, continuing down to the sixth century B. C.; while in Greece generally it came to an end between 1200 and 900 B. C. No coins or inscriptions in the ordinary Greek alphabet have been found with the objects which are called Mycenæan.

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The author's Pelasgians, to whom he ascribes the Mycenæan civilization, include Athenians, Arcadians, Helots of Sparta, Cretans, the Penestæ of Thessaly, Thracians, Illyrians, Ionians of Asia Minor, and Trojans, while the Lycians and Carians, the Etruscan artists, and probably some of the dark-haired Libyans, are of the same stock. The suggestion is mentioned as not unlikely that the early home of the founders of the race was in Somaliland. The Achæans, on the other hand, are Celts, Gauls, or Germans (for these are not to be distinguished) from the north. The Cimmerians of southern Russia, as well as those of Homer, were of the same race. Probably, also, according to our author, the Aryans of the 'Rig Veda' journeyed from the Cimbric Chersonese—going from the valley of the Danube across southern Russia, up the Oxus, and so into northern India. Even the Philistines may have been Celts or Achæans, as were the Umbrians of Italy. Brennus and his Gauls were but a later wave pouring down from the north. In Greece "only a handful" of Achæans came down into Peloponnesus—not enough to impose upon the conquered population the language of the conquerors. The Achæans do not seem to have controlled Athens at all; that remained Pelasgian. No violent change followed the Achæan invasion. Atreus was chosen to succeed Eurystheus and took peaceable possession of Mycenæ, while his grandson Menelaus married Helen, the daughter of Tyndareus, King of Sparta, and succeeded him. This marriage of Menelaus, by the way, is compared with that of Capt. John Smith and Pocahontas, neglecting the facts that John Smith did not marry Pocahontas, and that Rolfe, who did, failed to secure thereby a kingdom and palace. The Achæan lords are supposed to have "merged into their subjects as the Normans in England were absorbed into their Saxon subjects." The old Pelasgian bards were retained by the new chieftains, and sang the praises of the Achæans in their own Pelasgian tongue. Our author holds the dactylic hexameter to be Pelasgian; the Achæan literature had not advanced beyond the ballad. Thus, also, under the Achæan rulers Mycenæan art sank to the so-called Dipylon stage.

Professor Ridgeway is a scholar of vast erudition and equal independence and originality of thought. He seems to give "chapter and verse" for all his statements; he recapitulates his arguments frequently, and enumerates the inferences *seriatim*, almost in the style of the late Boston Monday lectureship. But while he seems to be exact in his treatment of the monuments, he is very careless in his treatment of literary evidence. The present reviewer knows of no other work of like scholarship and importance which is so untrustworthy in this respect. So serious a charge must be substantiated, and reference may be made to three passages which, in the book before us, are reprinted exactly from a paper published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1896. Two of these passages are important bases for the author's argument, yet his misinterpretations are what his countrymen would call "howlers." On page 110 we read: "That such [pedigrees] were part of the lore imparted by the elders to the younger, is shown by the words of Nestor, who tells how Tydeus [*sic*] had discoursed to him—*πάντων Ἀργείων ἐρέων γενεήν τε τόκον τε.*" But in this passage *ἐρέων* does not mean *telling*, but *asking;* Peleus (not Tydeus) when Nestor came to Phthia to enlist Achilles for the Trojan war, had delighted in "asking him of the race and descent of all the Argives," *i.e.*, of course, of those who were going on the expedition. Peleus was glad to learn that his son would be associated with the sons of his old comrades Tydeus and Telamon, but gives to Nestor no genealogical lore.

Again, on page 172: "In Homer the Pelasgi had been but recently driven out from it [*i. e.*, Thessalian Larissa], for among the allies of the Trojans are 'the tribes of the Pelasgians, who used to dwell in Larissa and those who dwelt in Pelasgic Argos.'" Here, in addition to a false reference (for Iliad ii., 237, read ii., 840, 681), is a combination of errors. "Those who dwell in Pelasgian Argos" are not Trojan allies, but are Achilles's own forces, having no connection with the previous part of the quotation, which in the original follows 60 verses later; and the translation "used to dwell," from which the inference is drawn that they dwelt in Larissa no longer, is entirely unfair, for the imperfect is the tense which is used throughout the Catalogue of the Ships for the inhabitants of the several regions. Yet at least three times afterward is this argument referred to as proof.

On page 90: "The still older testimony of Hesiod makes the Pelasgians Arcadian in origin." But in the passage referred to, Hesiod says only, "Sons were born to Lycaon [an Arcadian hero], whom Pelasgus begat." Here one might suspect a slip of the pen, transposing Arcadians and Pelasgian; but four pages farther on we read: "Hesiod was Ephorus's source for the doctrine that their origin was from Arcadia"; and on page 113 this becomes the statement of "Hesiod . . . about the Pelasgian occupation of Peloponnesus." Half-a-dozen similar misinterpretations of Homer, Pindar, Strabo, and Diodorus Siculus might be adduced, none of them passages as to which scholars have or can have any doubt as to the true meaning.

The author's main thesis is so much opposed to all linguistic evidence yet at hand that it requires for its support a much firmer foundation than he has laid. To say that the Achæans were Celts, and then make this term include not only Celts, Teutons, and Cimmerians, but also the Aryans of India, and possibly the Philistines of Syria, is, except for the last, only a change of nomenclature from the ordinary term Indo-Europeans, and the change brings us little advantage; it names the great family, which no one doubted, but does not designate a special division. The novelty of the view consists in part in leaving the language of Homer and of Athens only slightly influenced by the invasion from the north, and making it really not an Indo-European language at all. One of Professor Ridgeway's worst abuses of literary evidence is with regard to the Carians (page 194); reference is made to Strabo and to Kretschmer as supporting the very opposite of their views. He says that "few readers, after hearing Strabo's evidence, will require further proof that Carian was closely related to Greek. It is plain that it stood to literary Greek much as Lowland Scotch or the Somerset dialect does to cultivated English." Yet Strabo speaks of the Carians as foreigners Hellenizing, and Kretschmer holds that the Carian language was not Indo-European at all.

The author's disposition toward the long genealogies which are found in Pausanias and Apollodorus may be learned from the following characteristic sentence: "The Heræum records must have existed for many generations before Hellanicus completed his work in the fifth century B. C., and they would thus extend back far beyond the coming of either Dorian or Achæan, to the days of Proetus of Tiryns," *i. e.*, to 1300 B. C.

The work before us contains such a mass of erudition, and so many suggestive and stimulating observations and hypotheses, that the reviewer is far from advising scholars to disregard it. They should read and study it, by all means, but they should verify its references, and not accept a statement as proved simply because the author has set at its close his Q. E. D.

FOUR NOVELS.

A Modern Antæus. By the Author of 'An Englishwoman's Love-Letters.' Doubleday, Page & Co.

The World's Delight. By Mary J. H. Skrine. John Lane.

The Wooing of Sheila. By Grace Rhys. Henry Holt & Co.

Sons of the Sword. By Margaret L. Woods. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The new work of the writer whose first attempt so stirred the literary world, is a curious mixture of good and bad. Side by side with neat epigrams, we get whole passages that are either bombastic or obscure. Idyllic descriptions of nature are followed by scenes so realistic that we miss the pleasing veil of the French language. The hero, Tramp by nickname and by nature, is an attractive child, and grows up, we are repeatedly assured, into an attractive man; but in the process his qualities become fundamentally changed. For instance, we learn that in his childish days "an unadorned view of facts was the thing most difficult for his mind to attain." As a man he is almost painfully truthful. His twin-sister, though less minutely drawn, is a more lifelike character. The villain, who lets the hero bear the blame of crime committed by himself, is distinctly commonplace; so also is the girl who shares his guilt. We get one really interesting figure in Lady Petwyn, the hard-riding old châtelaine, with her biting tongue and her soft heart. The narrow-minded business man is well portrayed in the hero's father. Otherwise, all the characters serve chiefly to prove the Tramp's extraordinary powers of charm, and to the unconvinced reader their effusions seem rather maudlin. Indeed, the book would gain materially by the omission of padding in dialogue and description, no less than by a change in the painful and unsatisfactory ending.

'The World's Delight' is not written for children, after whom it is named, but about them. The twelve stories, though of unequal merit, have one and all a delicate charm, and display a genuine love and comprehension of their subject. It may be said that the writer's pathos is inferior to her humor, and that therefore she is more successful in painting the pleasures

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of the rich child than the sorrows of the poor one. Yet throughout the volume, as a shrewd and sympathetic exponent of the universal "delight," she makes an appeal to every older heart.

'The Wooing of Sheila' is a sweet, wholesome story. It is a melodrama, but none the worse for that, and its pathos is often true and real. The motherless Irish girl in her lonely mountain cottage, guarded only by her lover and by a half-witted old tramp, perhaps too much recalls the impossible fairy princess; yet we love her just the same. Again, if the chivalry of the "wooing" both before and after marriage seems inconsistent with the hero's passionate and untrained character, still it is always a pleasure to read about Bayards. A feeling for nature in all its forms, whether the beauty of scenery or the loyalty of dogs, is one of the most pleasing features of the book.

Again and again one is constrained to quote Victor Hugo's epigram on Napoleon. "Toujours lui, lui partout," is as true today as when it was first written, and there has hardly been a moment for over a hundred years when some one has not been occupied with the Little Great Man. Mrs. Woods's 'Sons of the Sword' is well timed to receive the attention it deserves. As a scholar and the daughter and wife of scholars, Mrs. Woods has traced with a masterly pen that crisis in Napoleon's career which first brought him in contact with England's bravest men, as represented and led by Sir John Moore. The rapid French march across the Guadarrama, the English retreat which events proved to have been so wise—above all, the personal effect of Napoleon on all who came near him—these are described in a manner full of vivid historic interest. The reader will merely regret that this interest should be veiled in a thin disguise of fiction. As a piece of history the book is thrilling; as a piece of psychology or imagination it leaves us cold. The plot, consisting mainly of the love of an English officer for a young Irish "détenue," is a tissue of coincidences too strange even for the most credulous. Of character-drawing or situations to excite our sympathies, there is such a lack that we wonder if the same hand can really have written the 'Village Tragedy.' This cannot be because the present is an historical novel, for Mrs. Woods knew how to stir our hearts with 'Esther Vanhomrigh.' May it not rather be that the figure of Napoleon Bonaparte is always so overwhelming that all other stories, even of love, and all other characters, even of brave hero and charming heroine, seem dwarfed and meagre by comparison?

PERSONAL RECOLLECTIONS OF JOHN M. PALMER.

Personal Recollections of John M. Palmer. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1901. Pp. 631.

John M. Palmer, lawyer, major-general in the civil war, Governor of Illinois, United States Senator, and candidate of the Gold Democrats for President, was the contemporary and associate of that notable group of public men of the civil-war period who have given eminent distinction to their State, such as Lincoln, Douglas, Trumbull, Grant, and Logan; and this work of his last years, which was completed a short time before his death, presents some most interesting pictures of the times in which its author bore a part. Interwoven with the narrative are the political papers, Governor's messages, and orations which illustrate his convictions upon the important policies of the war era—papers invariably written with the full courage of convictions which were never conventional after the party standards.

He was born in Kentucky in 1817, but, unlike Lincoln, had as good schooling as the country then afforded, and, moreover, was the son of a father who was a diligent reader of good books. The father, when the son was fourteen years old, migrated to Madison County, Illinois, not far from Alton, under the impulse of his hatred of slavery—a sentiment which the son applied to his political action as soon as he became a participant in public affairs. He was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-two, upon motion of Stephen A. Douglas, his friendship with whom was interrupted by the anti-Nebraska issue, upon which Palmer broke with the old Democratic party to become active in the formation of the Republican party. At the Philadelphia Republican Convention in 1856 he nominated Lincoln for the Vice-Presidency; and at Chicago, in 1860, he was an influential factor in making Lincoln the candidate for President.

Amid all his activities in public matters there is no evidence that he had any military tastes or studies in those early years, unless two thwarted ambitions for war service—the one when, a boy of fifteen, he was eager to go to the Black Hawk war, where Lincoln obtained his scanty military reputation; and the other, an attempt to take part in the struggle of the Texans for independence—afford indications of such fitness. Nevertheless, in April, 1861, upon his return home from legislative service, he received notice that he had been elected colonel of the Fourteenth Regiment of Illinois volunteers. In July his regiment was ordered into active service in Missouri, and in the following January he commanded a division of six full Indiana regiments, and thus was plunged into the responsibilities of a general officer while he had never seen a collection of armed men. Yet he made one of the best of the volunteer officers, receiving high commendation from his superiors, and commanding the cordial respect of regular army officers who led brigades under him. In the early battles along the Mississippi he acquired a necessary acquaintance with the defects and virtues of his green troops; he was intrusted with an important movement across Tennessee for the occupation of Nashville, where he made Andrew Johnson's acquaintance; at Stone River in January, 1863, he led a division of three brigades, and was in the thick of battle; and at Chickamauga in October his command stoutly resisted the assaults which disorganized the larger part of Rosecrans's army.

The reports made to the Washington authorities by Assistant Secretary of War Charles A. Dana caused the relief from further command in the Army of the Cumberland of Palmer's corps commander, Crittenden. This action was resented by Palmer in an indignant letter, asking his own release from the same army upon the ground that gross injustice had been done to the entire corps by "the misrepresentations made by fugitives from the battlefield," a comment which he says was aimed at the Washington visitors, whom he looked upon as mischievously bringing to the armies of the West the malign political influences which had wrought incalculable harm to the Army of the Potomac. Palmer's resignation was promptly accepted by Halleck and Stanton (under the inspiration, as the General thought, of the Washington visitors), but Rosecrans made this endorsement upon his letter: "wholly disapproving the acceptance of the resignation of this prudent, brave, and valuable officer," and President Lincoln announced to Stanton: "I do not want him to resign unless there be some reason unknown to me." Instead of being allowed to drop from active service, he was, under Thomas's influence, promoted to the command of Thomas's old corps, the Fourteenth, which he led with distinction through the early stages of the campaign against Atlanta; but in August, 1864, upon some warmly debated question of seniority between him and Schofield, he was at his own request relieved from further part in the campaign. Soon after his withdrawal from this command he was requested by Lincoln to take charge of the Department of Kentucky. His answer was: "I have commanded troops in the field during my military service, and I don't want to go to Kentucky and spend my time quarrelling with politicians." The President replied: "Go to Kentucky; keep your temper; do as you please, and I will sustain you."

This interview took place in the early morning before the customary press of visitors. Mr. Lincoln was in an office chair being shaved. He said to Palmer: "You are home folks and I must shave. I cannot do so before Senators and Representatives, but I thought I could do so before you." The conversation turned from Kentucky affairs to the general problems of the war. Gen. Palmer remarked, in the good-natured badinage of friendship: "Mr. Lincoln, if I had known at Chicago that this great rebellion was to occur, I would not have consented to go to a one-horse town like Springfield and take a one-horse lawyer and make him President." Mr. Lincoln pushed the barber from him, and said, in an excited manner: "Neither would I, Palmer. If we had had a great man for the Presidency, one who had an inflexible policy and stuck to it, this rebellion would have succeeded and the Southern Confederacy would have been established. All that I have done is, that I have striven to do my duty to-day with the hope that when to-morrow comes I shall be ready for it."

The Department of Kentucky was full of thorny business, and its management required much diplomacy, and more resolution and imperturbable good nature; all of which qualities Palmer supplied. His endeavor to administer affairs with legal conservatism tempered by humane common sense was almost involuntarily changed by a dramatic occasion. Rumor came to his ears that the slaves far and near were flocking to Louisville, with the understanding that, on the coming 4th of July, 1865, the General of the Department was to set them free. The General did his best to contradict the report, but the multitudes came and assembled in a grove near the city, where they expectantly awaited their deliverer. At the

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importunity of disquieted citizens, he drove to the grove for the purpose of reasoning with the negroes. His arrival was hailed with unbounded enthusiasm, and he was borne upon the shoulders of the crowd to a platform, where, as he contemplated their faces, his conservative resolution began to be shaken. He opened his proposed address with the words: "My friends, you are substantially free"; but the qualifying adverb was not heeded. "There went up a shout which could be heard a mile, and terms were applied to me that were only proper when used with reference to the Supreme Being. Then I determined to drive the last nail in the coffin of the institution, even if it cost me the command of the department, and I said, 'My countrymen, you are free, and while I command this department the military forces of the United States will defend your right to freedom!'" Three weeks later an order from the Adjutant-General's Office substantially ratified Gen. Palmer's decision, and slavery in Kentucky practically ended on the 4th of July, 1865.

As Governor and Senator, Gen. Palmer forcibly pointed out in his messages and speeches the dangerous encroachments upon the Constitutional rights of the States which were being made by national centralization, and, after the Chicago fire, wrote dignified letters of remonstrance to President Grant against the sending of United States troops for the enforcement of order to which the militia and police were fully equal. His term of service in the Senate from 1891 to 1897 showed him to be the same independent and fearless advocate of what he deemed to be sound principles of popular government that he had been in former places of honor and trust. He was a representative supporter of President Cleveland's general policy, and, when the Democratic party was taken captive by Populists, he remained unmoved by any of the delusions of the hour, and was glad to lead the forlorn hope of the Gold Democrats, who effected much in inducing the country to hold fast to sound money and other sober policies.

Some Architectural Works of Inigo Jones: A Series of Measured Drawings and Other Illustrations, together with Descriptive Notes, a Biographical Sketch, and List of his Authentic Works, by H. Inigo Triggs and Henry Tanner, Jun. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: John Lane. 1901. 14in.x19in.; pp. xiv, 36; ills. in the text, 40; plates, 40.

Inigo Jones has always been a figure of commanding interest for the historian of English art. Even in the eighteenth century, three volumes illustrating his designs were published. The nineteenth, especially in its latter half, pursued the story of his life with eagerness, and gave us, in Wyatt Papworth's paper on him in the monumental 'Dictionary of Architecture,' a list of his works so accurate that the minute analysis of the present authors has been able to discover in it no errors and but few omissions. The Rev. J. W. Loftie, in his 'Inigo Jones and Wren,' offered a sympathetic sketch of his career, while Mr. Reginald Bloomfield, in his recent 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' has added much to our knowledge of the man and his work. It has been left, however, to the opening year of the twentieth century to present between the covers of a single volume the sum of our knowledge of the man who, in the words of one of his most recent critics, was to architecture what Milton was to poetry—the first in England to accomplish great creations with art, spirit, and taste, according to the traditions of the Italian Renaissance.

Jones was of humble origin, the son of a clothworker of Smithfield, where he was born in 1573. His early years were spent in obscurity. Certain it is that he had a talent for drawing and painting; and that he obtained, from some noble patron, money enough to enable him to make long journeys. In his own words; "Being naturally inclined in my younger years to study the arts of design, I passed into foreign parts to converse with the great masters thereof in Italy, where I applied myself to search out the ruins of those ancient buildings which, in despite of time itself and the violence of barbarians, are yet remaining." This first visit to Italy was made at the end of the sixteenth century. He remained in that country for several years, and, on leaving it, entered the service of Christian the Fourth, King of Denmark. It was not until the year 1604, when Jones was in his thirty-first year, that he came into any prominence in England, and even then not as an architect, but as the contriver of the scenery of a masque ordered by James the First. This was the first time he was thus employed, and it was also the commencement of that artistic collaboration with Ben Jonson that lasted, in spite of growing discord, for so many years. James was so well pleased with the result of his scene-deviser's work that, a few months later, we find Jones at work on the *mise en scène* of three plays given in the hall of Christ Church, Oxford—an occasion said to have been the first on which shifting scenery was used in England.

Brilliant as were the results that Inigo Jones achieved in devising the settings of masques, it is not with that evanescent aspect of his work that our authors are concerned; and, as his architectural talents had but slight scope for their exercise for the next nine years, they pass somewhat rapidly to his second visit to Italy. It was in the summer of 1613 that he made his start, proceeding first to Vicenza to study the works of Palladio, by the severely masculine style of which he was greatly influenced. The copy of Palladio's 'Architecture' which Jones carried with him on his journey is preserved at Worcester College, Oxford. It is enriched with notes and criticisms in his handwriting, which show not only the places he visited, but the thoroughness with which he studied the works of the Italian masters. Returning to England early in 1615, he assumed the duties of Surveyor of the Works, and entered upon that career of architectural design which has placed his name so high upon the roll of English artists.

It is a curious fact that, in the long list of buildings given by Triggs and Tanner as definitely ascertained to be of Jones's designing, not one has an earlier date ascribed to it than that of the return from his second Italian journey. In other words, so late was he in finding opportunity to apply his skill to that art which gave him lasting fame that he had reached his forty-second year. With the long line of his works extending from this time until his death, in 1652, when he was seventy-nine years old, the book is occupied. Its text consists chiefly of a statement of such facts as are known about them, and especially about Jones's relation to them. Its plates are devoted to an exposition of them and their details, chiefly in the form of carefully measured drawings, sometimes as perspective sketches in pen and ink, and in a few instances as photographs. The drawings are well made, and exhibit all that is characteristic in the work with the greatest clearness. The perspective sketches crisply rendered in black and white will appeal strongly to the laymen, while the details, and especially the sections of mouldings drawn to a large scale, will be of both value and interest to architects. While not pretending to be a complete record of the existing works of Jones, or, indeed, of any one of them, the drawings contained in the book exhibit very acceptably many of his most important buildings. The Banqueting Hall at Whitehall is shown by a series of measured drawings, and details so excellent that one regrets the absence from them of a good plan of the building. Raynham Hall and Wilton House, two of Jones's most interesting and characteristic works, are well presented, and many minor buildings or parts of buildings are included among the plates.

In brief, the book is one which, in so far as it may influence opinion, is likely to add to the reputation of Inigo Jones as a master of the art of proportion. The more one studies the book and its drawings and the architecture of the period as a whole, the more readily will he agree with the authors that the buildings designed by Jones still remain conspicuous for their noble conception, and that in their sense of proportion they stand (at least in England) without serious rivals. Nor is it possible to dissent from the proposition that no architect, with perhaps the exception of Brunelleschi, ever had so great a share in changing the architecture of a nation. We might, indeed, fully understand the transition which the buildings of England underwent from the time of Elizabeth to that of the Stuarts had we none to study save those by Inigo Jones.

The Quaker: A Study in Costume. By Amelia Mott Gummere. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. 1901.

It is not often that the covers of a book are successfully designed to express its contents; but the volume before us, clad in sober gray, with its back of soft ooze leather of the same quiet and delicate shade, is a triumph of Quaker simplicity and daintiness.

Mrs. Gummere's record of Quaker fashions shows clearly that conservatism has been the guiding principle of their sumptuary laws. The custom of wearing the face smooth was universal at the time when the Quakers were beginning to establish their rules for dress and demeanor; hence their "testimony," later, against beards. Take away its elegant superfluities from the costume of Charles I. in Van Dyke's portrait in the Louvre, and you have as residuum the Quaker dress of George Fox. A feather is all that differentiates their hats; while the absence of a collar from the Quaker coat is due merely to the fact that the charming lace collars of the period could not be worn over a collar of cloth. Take away the laces, and what was a con-

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cession to the necessity of fashion becomes a mark of austerity and a cause of persecution. When Penn was asked by the King to define the difference between their religious beliefs, the Quaker replied: "The difference is the same as between thy hat and mine; mine has no ornaments." The vast difference between their manners is illustrated by another anecdote, though the point of it does not appear to have struck Mrs. Gummere (p. 68): "Charles II. once granted an audience to the courtly Quaker William Penn, who, as was his custom, entered the royal presence with his hat on. The humorous sovereign quietly laid aside his own, which occasioned Penn's inquiry, 'Friend Charles, why dost thou remove thy hat?' 'It is the custom,' he replied, 'in this place for one person only to remain covered.'" The epithet "courtly" might have been reserved for an occasion on which it was more fairly earned by the honest Quaker.

Even the plain bonnet, whose associations are for us so austere, was originally an early Victorian Paris creation; it dated from those grim days when the fashions were made for elderly people and the young had to fall into line—witness the youthful Victoria arrayed in a bonnet that, again minus a feather, might have been worn in Quarterly Meeting. "Not a pleat of the bonnet as now worn by the plainest Friend; not a turn of the shawl, not a flare of the coat, nor a roll of the hat brim, but had its origin at some remote day in Paris" (p. 190). That we have not seen the last of persecution in honor of an out-of-date Parisian confection is proved by an astonishing announcement in the Philadelphia *Ledger* for November 1, 1899, which we quote from Mrs. Gummere's book:

"Miss May Oller of Waynesboro, who lately returned from a trip to the Holy Land, has been expelled from the Antietam German Baptist Dunkard Church for discarding the plain bonnet. . . . At a meeting of the church authorities in July, Miss Oller was notified that she must return to the wearing of the bonnet, and that she would be given until October to put away her hat. . . . Although the defence was set up that the annual meeting had made the wearing of a hat or bonnet discretionary, Miss Oller's expulsion was ordered by a large majority."

In the interests of such martyrs as Miss Oller, copies of Mrs. Gummere's book ought to be distributed freely among the "Dunkards."

On page 207 Mrs. Gummere describes the "Calash" invented by the Duchess of Bedford (to her shame) in 1765, and gives 1840 as probably the last date for its appearance. But we have seen a calash, identical with that given in the illustration, on an Atlantic liner not ten years since, and worn by a lady who declared that it was an essential feature in her travelling equipment.

The scandal that was caused by the introduction, in the Society, of the "umberella" is pervaded by the same exquisite logic that we have met with in the history of the bonnet and coat-collar. There still lives a lady in Philadelphia who, in her girlhood, received a present of an umbrella.

"She carried the novel gift with great pleasure and delight, but so new and unknown was the article that the meeting to which she belonged became alarmed, and the overseers dealt with the worldly-minded father. During the controversy one woman Friend said to the girl: 'Miriam, would thee want that held over thee when thee was a-dyin'?' That, of course, settled the matter, and the offending umbrella was relegated to seclusion."

This, then, is the secret of the Quaker dress: it was not meant to be a uniform, but was merely the prevailing mode, with all the superfluous adornments left out. The Quaker bonnet no longer expresses shades of orthodoxy by the width of its brim or the cut of its crown. Once, you could have distinguished four or five separate sorts of Quakers by a glance at their bonnets. It may be that the doctrines also are becoming more uniform—and in fact Philadelphia has this winter beheld Hicksites and Wilburites holding a peace meeting in common; at any rate the few plain bonnets that are left will hardly survive their wearers. The Quaker costume is not yet obsolete, but the next generation will not be likely to meet it, even in the streets of Philadelphia. What Mrs. Gummere says (p. 227) of the bonnet applies to all the details of the orthodox dress:

"The study we have been making shows us how contrary to the true spirit of Quakerism the technical Quaker bonnet really is. Adopted in the days of decadence of spirituality, when life was easy and time permitted infinite attention to details, the bonnet became literally a snare, a fetish, a sort of class distinction, at one time almost as exclusive in its work as the mark on the forehead of the high-caste Brahmin. That day is effectually past; the modern Quakeress has now but the tradition to preserve, the outward shell, and must address herself to far greater moral problems. She must, nevertheless, like Charles Lamb, who loved the Quakers, endeavor to 'live up to that bonnet.'"

Mrs. Gummere's book is a work that, less than fifty years ago, would probably have caused her prompt expulsion from the Society. To-day it will be read with interest even by the most orthodox Quaker. As a real contribution to the minor antiquities of the Victorian era, it will appeal to a far wider audience. The full-page illustrations are excellent reproductions of old portraits, and there are numerous sketches of the details of Quaker costume.

The Foundations of American Foreign Policy, with a Working Bibliography. By Albert Bushnell Hart. Macmillan. 1901.

The substance of this book has already appeared in the shape of articles in *Harper's Magazine* and elsewhere; and republications, as a rule, do not call for review. The present interest of the subject treated, however, to say nothing of the historical knowledge and literary ability of the author, justifies a more extended notice than our space would usually permit. It can hardly be said that Professor Hart's presentation of history appeals to those who contend that the war with Spain destroyed, or obscured, certain ideals which have been cherished by the nation. He very properly rebukes those who have talked of the "isolation" of the United States, showing that our rulers have, from the beginning, had much diplomatic intercourse with those of foreign nations. This intercourse has generally been occasioned by controversies arising in the Western Hemisphere; but that was because our interests lay here. He shows that the expansion of the country has been incessant and prodigious, and that the Louisiana Purchase was opposed by arguments similar, in sound at least, to those recently urged against the purchase of the Philippines. And he shows, we must confess, that our rulers have often been influenced by no ideal higher than national glory or aggrandizement, and frequently by partisan or sectional feeling.

This, however, is not what we want to know. Professor Hart makes out a long list of "armed interventions," chiefly by officers of our navy, most of which are of no more importance than the battles of the kites and the crows. He insists that the United States for more than a hundred years has been a great colonial Power, meaning that it has received many immigrants, and has poured its population into many Territories where local governments did not exist. He points out that the Indians have been dispossessed, and that the general Government has ruled the Territories without asking the consent of their inhabitants. All this is undeniable, but is the conquest of the Philippines to be compared with this process? Professor Hart does not think that there will be any immigration of white people to the Philippines; the climate forbids. We cannot go there, and we do not want the Filipinos to come here. We have had no "colony" of this kind before. It can never repay us its cost; if there is any profit in the transaction, it consists in a mere increase of territory and a doubtful increase of prestige. "Who can doubt," the author exclaims, "that the purpose of the American people is not only to make the nation felt as a world Power, but also to spread Western civilization eastward?" If it is to be spread by fire and sword, by conquest and extermination, a great many intelligent Americans will doubt it.

The difference between colonization of this kind and that which we have hitherto practised is occasionally recognized by Professor Hart himself. In the Philippines, he says, the few must rule, exercising power conferred by a distant administration, but that system means a change in American standards of government and human rights.

"We must give up our fine contempt for other nations which rule with an iron hand; we must abandon the principle that 'all just government depends on the consent of the governed'; we must look on the colonial status as permanent, and not a stage on the way to statehood; we must begin to settle difficult questions of religion and worship by orders from Washington; we must surround our colonial governors with bodyguards, and arrest insurgent leaders; we must either yield part of our protective policy, or give up the principle for which our forefathers fought in the Revolution—that colonies exist for their own benefit, and not for the advantage of the mother country; we must yield our practice of free intercourse between the parts of our empire, or else we must admit Chinese to the continent."

We cannot be persuaded that any of the historical events which Professor Hart describes involved or implied such revolutionary changes as these. None of them, whether they involved violations of the Constitution or not, ever caused the Supreme Court to make a decision which at least half of the legal profession regards as fundamentally altering the Constitution. The Mexican war was as inconsistent with the ideals of the Declaration of Independence as anything could be, but it did not require us to give up these ideals. In their place Professor Hart has nothing to offer but the glorification of force. Unrighteousness, he frankly declares, may exalt a nation. Our

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aggressions, "even when unrighteously undertaken," have brought to the nation increase of territory and prestige. Yet he tells us that the Mexican war was waged to extend slavery, and led straightway to the civil war. Such increase of territory, we contend, was a curse. As to the "prestige" gained by it, the less we boast the better.

To observe that the diplomacy of our Government has been determined by a regard for our interests tends to obscure important distinctions. Every ruler professes to act out of regard to the interests of his subjects; no one ever heard of a diplomat who declared his policy to be inimical to the interests of his country. We must disregard such professions, and inquire what, as a matter of fact, are the true interests of a people. To this inquiry Sumner and Lowell gave a clear answer, and one good for all time. Had the people of the Northern States possessed real courage, had they listened to Lowell and Garrison, there would have been no war with Mexico, no consequent aggrandizement of the slaveholding power, and slavery might have been peaceably abolished. It seems like turning back the hands on the clock of progress to maintain that the brown man has no rights that the white man is bound to respect; a generality beside which those of the Declaration glitter with renewed brilliance. We cannot exclude the principles of righteousness from the conduct of national affairs; we cannot serve God as individuals and mammon as American citizens. With all his cynicism, when it comes to the last analysis, Professor Hart recognizes that our interests are to be tested by righteousness, justice, and reason; that no form of American doctrine "means that the United States is to do whatever may seem good to it in America." Had he recognized these principles at the outset, his presentation of history would have been of a different character.

The Life and Letters of Gilbert White of Selborne. Written and Edited by his Great-Grand-Nephew, Rashleigh Holt-White. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xvi, 330, and ix, 300. Illustrated.

At last we make the acquaintance of the Selborne Naturalist in "an authentic account of his career." The book is a very important and comprehensive addition to the literature of Selborne. For the most part, the volumes are composed of letters of an intimate personal character, and they throw a great deal of light on our subject, his village and neighborhood, his friends and neighbors, his college and church, his farm, farming, and the farmers, his publishers and publishing, and on his contemporaries, Linné, Pennant, Lever, Forster, Montagu, and others. His 'Natural History' is already well known, but these pages contain omitted portions of some of the letters and other matter of cognate interest. There is much concerning White's family and relatives; filled with pedigree, the first chapters are rather dry; once through with them, the interest is secure. There is little or nothing concerning his childhood, except that he was brought up by hand; it is only while in college that the data become more abundant through correspondence, and so continue to the end. Portraits of kindred are given, but none of the central figure. After the reading, the latter may be pictured as short in stature, moderately stout, like relatives, from good living; marked by smallpox; using an ear-trumpet later in life, and not much given to dress, as is becoming in a naturalist, or his account-books would have shown it; and he "had no silk-breeches and stockings to make a wedding-visit in." Possibly his likeness would resemble that of the vicar in the frontispiece. That he did not marry because of unrequited affection is denied, and we are left to conclude he was a bachelor because he preferred to be. An apparent avoidance of remark on his unmarried condition may be due to something yet untold. The insolent charge of concealing his income that he might continue to profit by aid from his college, made in 'The Colleges of Oxford,' edited by Andrew Clark, 1891, is effectually and finally disposed of.

The world knows Gilbert White as a naturalist. As a clergyman he probably was of no especial prominence. Thoughts for ever running upon his natural history would not conduce to sermon-building, and would be less interfered with by machine prayers. His calling in those days, however, is not to be judged by modern standards. Mulso, himself of the cloth, says in a letter; "There does not lie so much spiritual power and efficacy in the clergy of the Church of England now [1779] as did formerly. The itching ears of the vulgar and the republican principles of the Times make all the members of our church looked upon with an evil eye." In the profusion of his advice, we see more evidence of the clergyman than in its character. With this in mind, our author's dropping the "Rev." usually prefixed to the name in favor of Gilbert White the naturalist, appears quite appropriate, and will raise no objection. There are excellent illustrations of familiar features and views in Selborne and at Oxford. The book is a desirable acquisition in any library containing the classic 'Natural History of Selborne.'

The True Thomas Jefferson. By William Eleroy Curtis. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901. Pp. 395.

This latest addition to the series of so-called "true" biographies has in general the characteristics of its predecessors. There is the same interesting collection of facts—few of them, to be sure, particularly new or even unfamiliar, but gaining a peculiar significance from a somewhat novel grouping. Whatever one's opinion of the importance of the result, one can but praise the industry of the author in searching out so many details of Jefferson's personal life, and his industry in marshalling his material in support of his particular view. For while these biographies, by their special claim to "truth," profess an absence of bias, one needs to read but a little way in most of them to discover that there is, after all, something of an axe to grind. There is the assumption that previous writers, however ample their information or good their intentions, have not, after all, told quite the whole truth, and that there is another side which it is important to bring out. The other side, of course, is chiefly made up of the foibles of life, the personal limitations and idiosyncrasies, the political inconsistencies, the moral weaknesses and defects. The public have been told often enough of the great things which the fathers did; what the public need now is to be told about what the fathers failed to do, how they carried themselves from day to day, when they breakfasted, dined, and rode out, how much they spent for this and that, and wherein they departed from the conventional moral path.

Mr. Curtis's journalistic powers have found a particularly good opportunity for exercise in the case of Jefferson. No American public man has rivalled Jefferson in inconsistency and contradictoriness. A doctrinaire in politics and a voluble theorizer about everything that fell within his ken, his performance as a statesman and a man fell often so far short of his professions as to expose him to the charge of charlatanism. By education and taste an aristocrat, and surrounded most of his life with the appearance if not the substance of wealth, he could yet ostentatiously assume for a time, as President, the attitude of a low-grade bourgeois, offend the diplomatic corps by his rudeness, and set up an ideal of "Jeffersonian simplicity" of which practically his whole public and private career was an open contradiction. He was a strict-constructionist in theory, and an elaborate expounder of the notion of popular government, yet he bought Louisiana because it was "necessary," planned for the Territory a government dependent on the Executive alone, and salved his conscience with idle talk about a Constitutional amendment. No President ever professed greater love for his country or more jealous regard for its welfare, yet none ever made national interests more completely subordinate to his theoretical ideas as to what ought to be done. With all his extraordinary methodicalness, he seems to have been essentially incapable of attending to many interests at once, and to have failed altogether to comprehend the significance of administrative machinery. Even in his personal relations he was governed by personal likings and antipathies which too often ran counter to his theories and professions, while his "Anas" represent a perversity and moral warp unparalleled among American public men.

All this and more Mr. Curtis brings out, generally with a wealth of incident and authority. He takes us into Jefferson's family and social life, and shows us how he failed as a farmer, how much his wine cost him, how he did his own marketing in Washington, and how he met the probably exaggerated charge of laxity in his relations with women. On the other hand, he exhibits Jefferson as the champion of religious liberty in Virginia, the friend and correspondent of scholars and men of affairs at home and abroad, and the founder of a unique university. As we have said, there is nothing new about it, but the mosaic is decidedly entertaining, and not without value even for the sober historian. One cannot help questioning, however, whether this kind of biography is any "truer" than that with which it apparently invites comparison. The permanent influence of a man in his sphere is the important thing to be made clear, after all, rather than the respects in which, largely because of his greatness in other directions, a minute examination of his career makes him out extremely human. Mr. Curtis's biography is a succession of views of the moment, and, while it does not increase our respect for Jefferson, it does not so very greatly detract from it.

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The volume is attractively got up and the full-page cuts are clear and well executed. The arrangement of the matter, though usually systematic, is occasionally somewhat arbitrary; Jefferson's opinions and practice in regard to slavery, for example, finding place in the chapter on Jefferson as a lawyer. The statement (p. 65) that "William and Mary is the oldest college in America, although Harvard graduated the first class," will not, of course, go unchallenged. Finally, the absurd classical names intended to be given to new Western States were suggested, not in connection with the Louisiana cession (p. 184), but with Jefferson's plan for the organization of the Northwest Territory, in 1784.

The Science of Penology. By Henry M. Boies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

The murder of President McKinley has aroused passions and called forth opinions which indicate the importance of the subject here treated. The episode has indeed been a lesson in penology, not only because it has directed attention to the causes of crime, but also because it has revealed the criminal impulse in hosts of people who thought it a meritorious act to declare that the assassin should be put to death by the mob. It would be unfortunate were no improvement in the administration of justice to result from this conspicuous crime; and when the foolish outcry over "stamping out anarchy" has subsided, the timeliness of Mr. Boies's book should be recognized. The anarchist murderer having been disposed of, the causes of crime, the laws defining it, and its prevention by the intelligent treatment of criminals and those who are likely to be criminals, are subjects demanding immediate consideration.

Without going so far as to agree with Mr. Boies that there is a complete science of penology, we can at least maintain that knowledge is far in advance of practice. For years the county jail has been a shame and reproach, undefended and indefensible, but it is everywhere maintained. Here criminals, tramps, paupers, imbeciles, persons charged with crime, but who may be innocent, and witnesses charged with no crime, of all ages, are poured in and stirred together; a seething vat of moral and physical filth. As Mr. Eugene Smith has said, the prison turns out more direct results in the shape of confirmed criminals than any other agency "within the range of experience or devised by the folly of man." Let those who are so hot to stamp out anarchy consider the responsibility of Government in this matter.

Equally irrational and condemned by experience is the system of determinate sentences. It happens every day that men are released from prison who will at once resume the practice of crime. The authorities know that this will be so, but the law ignores it. There are criminals who have been convicted a hundred times—it is said that one of this class was sentenced one thousand times. Yet it is almost impossible to persuade the Legislature to adopt the system of indeterminate sentences, or to induce the judges to apply it when it has been introduced. It has been demonstrated that "first offenders" can in most cases be taught to refrain from crime, but the customary treatment confirms them in it. Yet some progress has been made by two or three of our States in establishing systems of probation and parole. If these systems can be properly administered, the severity of the scourge of crime will soon be appreciably mitigated. Such administration can take place only when the appointment of those charged with the care of criminals ceases to be the perquisite of party managers.

Mr. Boies contends earnestly that crime is a manifestation of disease; that the disease should be treated like physical ailments, and that it is curable. Relying on Mr. Brockway's classical results, he maintains that criminality is at least as curable as consumption, and can as well be prevented. In presenting this theory, he follows the methods of physiology, and treats penology under the titles of Diagnostics, Therapeutics, and Hygienics. While this method has a scientific aspect, it occasions some repetition, and it is doubtful whether our knowledge of the subject is so complete as to justify the use of the term science. It is easy to show that certain depraved and degenerate human beings will, in all probability, become criminals; but they do not constitute the criminal class. At law, a criminal is one who violates a penal statute, and such violations are common among all classes. If we adopt the standard of Jesus, and hold every one guilty who dallies with the impulse to sin, the criminal class becomes very comprehensive. On the other hand, if we call criminals only those convicted of crime, we leave out many people who ought to be included. The children of the rich are, perhaps, in proportion to their numbers, as likely to turn out bad citizens as the children of the poor; and it is well known that many rich men have obtained wealth by methods which bring poor men to jail. Before penology becomes an exact science, the term "criminal" must be more precisely defined than it has been hitherto.

Mr. Boies lays great stress on the importance of preventive measures in the case of children, and protests vigorously against their imprisonment. Those who are essentially depraved must be confined, but it should be in special reformatories. His exposition of the methods by which criminals should be identified and classified is especially interesting. The system of schools, reformatories, asylums, and prisons, adapted to the requirements of different classes, which he advocates may be taken as the ideal toward which reforms should be directed. Such a system, however, implies a degree of wisdom on the part of legislators, and virtue on the part of rulers, which seems unattainable under party government as we know it. Yet our politicians are not heartless, and if the professedly religious members of society would interest themselves in the extirpation of crime, they could obtain the reforms which our criminal law demands. Mr. Boies has done good work in calling public attention to many abuses, and in explaining the proper remedies. His book ought to be carefully read by all who have to do with framing and administering the laws relating to crime, and it should be consulted by every one interested in reformatory work.

Dragons of the Air: An Account of Extinct Flying Reptiles. By H. G. Seeley, F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. xiii, 239; illustrated.

The pterodactyles were neither reptiles, birds, nor mammals, but to some extent a mixture of the three, in which each has lost its identity. More than a dozen genera have been discovered, in sizes ranging from a couple of inches to twenty feet in spread of wings. They flew like birds or bats, but, unlike the case of bats, the skinny flying membrane was stretched from the body to a single much elongated wing finger. Theirs was true flight, not mere sailing like that of flying squirrels, or the so-called flying lizards and frogs. Their geological record begins below the Lias in the Rhætic, or possibly in the Muschelkalk, and continues to the Upper Chalk of the Secondary Rocks, where it is lost. Throughout their course the pterodactyles were little affected by evolution or even by degeneration, unless it may be in the loss of the tails or of the teeth in some of the later genera. The enormously developed wing finger characterized the group from the first; its ancestral history is unknown. According to our present knowledge, the pterodactyles had no ancestors and left no descendants. They are related to the birds as a parallel, not a transitional, group between them and the reptiles; their relations to the Mammalia are such as to bring them more nearly than the birds intermediate between mammals and reptiles. Before the wing finger was developed, in all probability the ornithosaur was a four-footed animal, with affinities such as might have come from some progenitor of the Dinosauria, an extinct group commonly placed between birds and reptiles, or by some said to represent a common ancestral stock.

From the teachings before us, the relations of the great groups of animals are parallel, like the rays of the solar spectrum or the fingers of the hand, rather than successive; there is no evidence of approximation of mammals to birds, and birds give no evidence that their ancestors were reptiles such as now exist on the earth. Nature does not by transition pass one type of animal into another group by slow accumulation and summing up of differences; the occurrence of mammals, birds, and reptiles, distinct early in the secondary epoch, favors parallelism; and the mammalian characters, or the resemblances to other kinds of animals shown by pterodactyles, are to be regarded as inheritances from a time when there was a common stock from which none of the groups had been distinctly elaborated. The cause of the start into existence of the Ornithosauria was the patagial membrane, which in turn may have been the cause of the chief skeletal differences separating the pterodactyles from birds. The type ceased to adapt its organization and modify its structures to suit the altered circumstances forced upon it by revolutions of the earth's surface; consequently it became extinct.

Some of these ideas do not favor the building of genealogical trees, but, if growth of the vital organs modifies the distinctive form of any vital organ, brain, or lungs, and, as a consequence of modification of the internal structure due to changes of food and habit, brings a new group of animals into existence, as the author holds, he has not made the necessity of parallelism in evolution or origin of the great groups from the same stock about the same time sufficiently obvious.

The volume is in every way an excellent

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monograph. The style is popular enough for any student of nature, whether in comparisons of bone and bone or in discussion of general relations in zoölogy and geology; and, unobscured by technicalities, the scientific character of the essay does not impair the interest. Professor Seeley is one of the best authorities on the subject.

The Old Testament and the New Scholarship. By John P. Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xii + 328.

This book gives an excellent idea of the attitude towards the value and authority of the Old Testament, and indeed of the Bible generally, possible for a Broad Church Episcopalian. Dr. Peters is an archæologist of position, and has been a close student of the higher criticism, which he accepts in the large. Of some of its more recent and minutely verbal results he has admittedly his doubts, and it is evident that the modern rehabilitation of the Homeric poems has shaken him as to still more. He is also a Trinitarian Christian in the exact sense, accepts the incarnation and the general doctrine of the person of Christ, and regards, apparently, the record of the life of Jesus in the Gospels as sound and historical. For him New Testament criticism is fairly over, and that of the Old may in time swing back similarly into greater approximation to former positions. A great gulf thus separates him from the attitude most prominent in Cheyne's 'Encyclopædia Biblica.' On the other hand, he does not accept a doctrine of the inspiration and authority of the Scriptures which would satisfy the Princeton school. The Bible, he holds, is the record of God's speaking to man, and not the word of God itself. There is only one word of God, Christ. As a consequence, he has a comparatively free hand in dealing with the Biblical texts, and finds a human side—which, he contends, was a necessary side—all through them. Canonicity, for him, means that a book for ages has corresponded and responded to the needs of humanity; inspiration, that it has been given the power so to do. The Church is a living and inspired witness that Jesus is the Word of God, and it presents the Bible as written evidence of the same. Yet Dr. Peters makes no mention of Apostolic Succession, and the Church does not figure with him as the almighty She.

This position, then, he has to justify against the modern higher criticism, or with its assistance, as he would prefer to say. His book divides into four parts. The first deals with the doctrine of Scripture: what inspiration means and the Church teaches as to it; what is the bearing on it of the doctrine of the incarnation and of the use of the Old Testament by Jesus. The second is an application of the idea of evolution to the Bible—the evolution in the religion of Israel and especially in the Messianic hope. There is great freshness of thought and thoroughness of scholarship in this part. The third is a lengthy study, much by way of specimen, of the book of Psalms. The latter half will have interest mostly for Episcopalians, and will seem to others rather dragged in, as it is an account of the origin of the Prayer Book version and an examination of its present-day suitableness. Fourth, comes a review of the results of archæology. Here, above all, Dr. Peters is at home; and in dealing with early Semitic writing materials, the Semitic script, stone worship, the ark of the Covenant, and the book of Daniel, he develops an easy familiarity and width of detail, combined with a certain refreshing and well-balanced shrewdness and common sense.

This last addition to "The Churchman's Library" has evidently passed through a lecture stage, and still suffers somewhat in consequence in the way of diffuseness. But its usefulness for its intended readers is probably not seriously impaired by that, and for any one who seeks with a tolerably good critical and archæological conscience to hold fast to the kernel of Christianity, a better *apologia* could not easily be commended. Without either unctuousness of tone or straining of argument, Dr. Peters has very fairly met the difficulties which centre round the doctrine of the Bible. His method is excellent and his spirit, except towards Presbyterians, is irreproachable. A fragment of criticism: the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician alphabet can hardly now be called "the most commonly accepted opinion." It is even beginning to drop out of the encyclopædias, and there are few specialists that do it reverence. Further, the Ka'ba at Mecca is not the same as the sacred stone there. The Ka'ba is the square building, the House of God; the Black Stone is built into its southeast corner.

The Civil War and the Constitution, 1859-1865. By John W. Burgess. (The American History Series.) 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Prof. Burgess's volumes are readable, though they do not add much to our knowledge of the events covered. They are, we presume, intended as a résumé of the history of a period already pretty thoroughly explored by others. As such a résumé, they are not likely to be censoriously criticised. The title seems to us to be misjudged, for there is little about the Constitution in the book, except the twenty pages of chapter xxviii. on the "Interpretation of the Constitution under the Stress of the Military Events of 1862 and 1863." Indeed, the two volumes are almost altogether occupied with the war itself and the events which led up to it. As a whole, it is history of the kind so much in fashion at the present time, written *currente calamo* and "strenuously," in a tone the very opposite of what at one time the "dignity of history" was supposed to demand, and occasionally encroaching perilously on the confines of a journalistic style. Thus, we are told (vol. i., p. 39) of John Brown that he was "a notorious dead beat," who left his family to shift for themselves while he was "careering around reforming things"; and it is suggested that the reason why Brown gave no account of his plans or expenditures to those who supplied him with funds was because he "had gotten into his first paying business, and he was determined not to have it ruined by publicity."

For absolute accuracy of statement we do not usually look to writers of this school. In his account of the *Trent* affair (vol. i., p. 271), Prof. Burgess says that "there is not much doubt that the British principles, practices, and decisions" seemed to warrant the conclusion that Capt. Wilkes was justified in thinking that a belligerent had the right "to visit any neutral vessel on the high seas in search of contraband of war, and to seize the persons and papers of diplomatic representatives of Governments at war with his Government." It was, on the contrary, because there was no precedent, practice, or decision in either country which justified Capt. Wilkes that Mason and Slidell were surrendered. In the same way (vol. ii., p. 298), where our author is speaking of the violations of neutrality by England, he mentions the fact that in the *Alexandra* case Baron Pollock quoted both Kent and Story in support of the proposition that it is not a breach of neutrality by a state for its citizens to sell contraband of war to belligerents, as if he thought that this absolutely undisputed fact had some important bearing on the questions raised by the escape of the Confederate cruisers. In the same volume, at p. 295, he declares that the British contention that "Parliament was the exclusive interpreter of *the principles of international law* for the British executive" was "sound jurisprudence"—thus leaving the judicial branch of the Government out of view altogether. If it had been sound jurisprudence, we certainly should never have succeeded before the Geneva tribunal.

A Ribbon of Iron. By Annette M. B. Meakin. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 320, 21 illustrations.

In this clearly printed and handy volume Miss Meakin recounts the experiences of herself and mother in making the journey over the Trans-Siberian Railway from Moscow to Vladivostok and thence to Japan, during the summer of 1900. They crossed the Trans-Baikal region before regular passenger trains were running, and reached Vladivostok just after the Chinese war had broken out in Mantchuria. The ease and safety with which unprotected women, unable to talk Russian, could make the journey at such a time, speaks volumes for the courtesy of Russian officials and the perfection of Russian Governmental control. Such are the police arrangements throughout Siberia and Turkestan that ladies can travel everywhere as safely as in the United States, while upon the regular trains over the Siberian Railway the conveniences of travel are exceptionally good. In view of the lugubrious impressions generally received from the English accounts of Siberia, the reader will be surprised, in following our author's charming story, to find himself, at Tomsk, in a university town of the first order, with faculties, museums, and libraries which compare well with those of Europe—indeed, the library has some treasures of which only two others in the world can boast. These, with the imposing buildings and numerous scholarships for indigent students, are among the many tokens of the broad-minded patriotism of the wealthy Siberian merchants and miners who have largely contributed the funds from which the University has been built. The botanical gardens at Tomsk have a high standing.

Among the side excursions were one to

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Minusinsk and one to the great prison at Alexandrovsk, in the vicinity of Irkutsk. At Minusinsk the wonderful museum, with its unrivalled collection of bronze relics, was explained to the visitors by its learned founder, Mr. M. Martianoff, and its equally learned curator, Mr. Felix Cohn, both of whom were originally exiles, but have been so attracted by the beauties of the situation and the salubrity of the climate that they have voluntarily chosen Siberia as their permanent residence. Until one has been through Siberia in the summer season, he can have no adequate appreciation of the attractiveness, not only of the civilization, but also of the climate and the scenery. Indeed, almost every small town has its museum; its impressive church, with its still more impressive church music; its library, and its cultivated people. Shortly before Miss Meakin was in Blagovestchensk, Saint-Saëns's difficult opera of "Samson and Delilah" was rendered by a local musical society. During the latter part of their journey, our travellers were accompanied by a celebrated tenor soloist who was going to Vladivostok to fill an engagement with a first-class opera company. The opera-house in Irkutsk is fully equal, in size and equipment, to any we have in the United States.

The information which Miss Meakin received concerning the massacres of the Chinese at Blagovestchensk, and the general operations of the Russians in Mantchuria, being obtained from hearsay evidence after leaving the region, is somewhat misleading. She represents the massacre as "inhuman" and "brutal," following the current reports which appeared in English papers, though she received the account herself from eye-witnesses. Her witnesses, however, did not see all the facts. The full truth is, that the Russians were taken perfectly by surprise by the attack of the Chinese upon them in Mantchuria, and were utterly unprepared for it. To such an extent did the Russians confide in the good will of the Chinese that, as Miss Meakin herself says, they had completely denuded the place of soldiers, sending them down the river for general service. The opening of fire by the Chinese spread immediate consternation such as can be appreciated only by one who was in the midst of the scenes which followed. The expulsion of the Chinese from the Russian side seemed to be a military necessity of the most imperative order, for, owing to the suddenness of the attack, it was natural to believe that no Chinaman could be trusted, and that if the Chinese remained the city would be between two fires. The Chinese were therefore ordered across the river, and would for the most part have crossed in safety had not the Chinese themselves opened fire upon the rafts containing their countrymen. To one familiar with the conditions in Mantchuria at that time, it is clear that the last thing which the Russians wished to occur was the breaking out of hostilities between them and the Chinese. War is, indeed, hell, as Gen. Sherman truly said. But in this case it was the Chinese who forced its terrible alternative upon the Russians, and it was but the "fortunes of war" which they suffered by their own invitation.

Patterson's Nautical Encyclopedia. Revised and enlarged edition. Cleveland, O.: The Marine Review Publishing Co. 1901.

Paasch's 'From Keel to Truck,' upon which 'Patterson's Nautical Encyclopedia' is frankly admitted to have drawn largely, has a reason for being in that it gives marine terms in three different languages, English, French, and German; but it is difficult to understand what want Mr. Patterson's book is intended to supply. The title of encyclopædia suggests an ample well from which the greenhorn may freely quench his thirst for knowledge. Applying this test at random to the five parts into which the work is divided, we obtain peculiar results. If we wish, for example, to learn what a "Pacific iron" is, we see, in Part I., that "stun'-sail-boom irons are known sometimes as 'Pacific Irons' "; the fact being that a Pacific iron is a thing by itself and never confounded with anything else. Part II. tells us that "a 'cap scuttle' is a framing composed of coamings and head ledges, raised above the deck, with a flat or top which shuts closely over into a rabbet"—a statement almost bewildering in its lucidity. In Part III. we read that the Index Correction is "the adjustment of the index glass of the quadrant, octant, or sextant, which consists of making the index glass perpendicular to the plane of the arc" (this would have been news to the immortal Bowditch); in Part IV., that "circulating or condensing water is that which is run through a surface condenser to absorb the heat from the exhaust steam"; and in Part V., that " 'Jimmy Legs' is a nickname for the master-at-arms."

These answers bespeak the dictionary rather than the encyclopædia, and they assume, on the user's part, either a tolerably wide acquaintance with the several subjects considered (Seamanship, Ship-building, Navigation, Marine Engineering, and Man-of-war phrases), or else the same optimistic spirit which, with a light heart, undertakes French in ten lessons. The novice would lose time and patience in chasing the evasive key to his riddle from one definition to another, while the expert would instinctively turn to the less pretentious treatises, by well-known authorities, in which each branch is dealt with soberly and thoroughly. As a dictionary of sea terms the book has, possibly, some value, although it is not free from errors and from expressions which are, to say the least, novel. Few sailors know what an anchor shaft is (p. 43); few would call a rowlock a thole-pin (p. 79); none ever heard of a main boom sail (p. 167); some have seen a horizontal donkey boiler (p. 413); and all would wish, in 1901, an Arctic chart of more recent date than 1875.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benedix, Roderick. Der Prozess. American Book Company. 30 cents.
Bradford, Charles. The Wild Fowlers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Canterbury, William, Lord Archbishop of. A Relation of the Conference between William Land and Mr. Fisher the Jesuit. Macmillan. 8s. 6d.
Chubb, E. W. English Words. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Clear, Claudius. Letters on Life. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Cochrane, A. D. Banking. London: Effingham Wilson.
Douay, Gaston. An Elementary French Reader. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Ford, S. V. R. The Methodist Year Book, 1902. Eaton & Mains. 10 cents.
Green, J. R., and Roberson, George. Studies in Oxford History, chiefly in the Eighteenth Century. Oxford (Eng.): Oxford University Press.
Harnack, Adolf. What is Christianity? London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jenkins, T. A. Alphonse Daudet: Selected Stories. American Book Company. 50 cents.
Kerley, C. G. Short Talks with Young Mothers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lodeman, A. Germany and the Germans. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Mairet, Jeanne. L'Enfant de la Lune. American Book Co. 35 cents.
"Our Accursed Spelling": What to Do with It. Oak Park (Ill.): E. G. Vaile.
Peloubet, F. N. The Teachers' Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles. Henry Frowde.
Pollock, Channing. Behold the Man. Washington: The Neale Publishing Company.
Queen Mab's Fairy Realm. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Rhoades, L. A. Schiller's Die Jungfrau von Orleans. D. Appleton & Co.
Skrine, F. H. Life of Sir William Collson Hunter. Longmans, Green & Co.
Stokes, Susan. Ten Common Trees. American Book Company. 40 cents.
Storm, Theodor. Immensee. Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Strong, Josiah. The Times and Young Men. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Terry, M. S. Moses and the Prophets. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Veblen, Ellen R. The Goosenberry Pilgrims: A Child's Drama. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. Christmas at the Mermaid. (Flowers of Parnassus.) John Lane.
Webb, C. H. With Lead and Line along Varying Shores: Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Weulersse, G. Chine Ancienne et Nouvelle. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Wilson, B. T. Ye Mountaineer. F. Tennyson Neely Company.

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ERRATA.

Page 3, col. iii., line 23. For "prosperous" read "populous."

Page 25, col. i., line 28 from bottom. For "Caucaslans" read "Caucasian."

Page 91, col. i., line 10. Omit "not."

Page 111, col. i., line 5. For "Etas-Unis" read "Etats-Unis." Line 15: For "trouvent" read "trouveront."

Page 114, col. ii., line 33 from bottom. For "II." read "11."

Page 115, col. i., line 16. Omit "The diarist . . . " to end of paragraph.

Page 116, col. i. Omit last sentence of first notice ("By John Champe Carter," etc.).

Page 177, col. ii., line 22 from bottom, and col. iii., line 6. For "Squier" read "Squiers."

Page 188, col. iii., line 17 and 34. For "professional" read "professorial."

Page 199, col. iii., lines 34 and 17 from bottom. For "Squier" read "Squiers."

Page 206, col. i., line 22. For "Gorynia" read "Gournia."

Page 224, col. iii., line 23. For "W." read "Mr."

Page 320, col. ii., line 36. For "seventy-two" read "eighty-eight."

Page 357, col. i., line 36. For "aula" read "anta."

Page 396, col. iii., line 8. For "Dent, Lippincott" read "Dent-Macmillan."

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